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**ЛИНГВОСТРАНОВЕДЕНИЕ ПЕРВОГО ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА
(английский язык)**

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Памятка студенту

Why was this book written?

This book was written to help you to extend your knowledge about the countries where English is spoken, the people, who live there, their culture, ways of living, ideas and preferences. It will introduce you to some concepts about the way the language is used. It will help you to improve your English, and to take you to a higher level of the English usage. It will help you to learn not only the meanings of new words but also how they are used, how they combine with one another (collocate), and in what context they are used. Apart from this the book aims to help you to observe what the main differences between Russian and English perception of the reality are.

What is special about this book?

We chose topics which we consider useful for students who want to use their English in the world, to be able to socialize and talk about a wide range of adult subjects related to ourselves, societies, cultures and the world around us.

The book gives you a series of exercises checking that you have understood the information in the text on the topic and practicing what you have just learned. Some exercises will also teach you some more new information to challenge you and extend your knowledge even further. Additionally, we include some follow-up activity which will take you beyond this book, for example to a website or other sources where you can expand your knowledge on the topic.

It is important at this level to relate the information you learn to your personal world and your own goals of learning English. We have included exercises that encourage you to personalise what you learn.

You can use this book with a teacher or for self-study. It will help you to learn how the words collocate (collocations are combinations that are typical of English but which are difficult to predict) and understand the more subtle features of meaning, such as how formal or informal the words are, whether they have negative or positive connotations, how they function as metaphors, and so on. To make the language more natural, we have included longer texts, so that you get a more detailed context for the key words, and see how they form collocations. Reading and observing how words go together is a very important strategy at an intermediate and advanced level.

How is this book organized?

The book is divided into a number of sections (units) with texts, exercises and useful information, which will help you to learn to socialize in English and talk about a wide range of subjects, be aware of the general background knowledge that native English speakers have.

What else do you need in order to work with this book?

You need some kind of notebook or file where you can write down the new information, new words, collocations and expressions you are learning. Read the texts carefully to and make notes of any interesting language you learn from them.

You also need to have access to a couple of good dictionaries. The book will give you the most important information on the topic and about words but you will sometimes need to refer to a dictionary for extra information about meanings of words and their usage. Some exercises tell you to use a dictionary. It will help to train you in getting the best out of your dictionary. Firstly you will need an English-English dictionary for foreign learners. Secondly, you will need a good bilingual dictionary. Good ones are *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, *Cambridge International Dictionary of English*, "English-Russian Dictionary" by V. K. Muller, "Russian-English Dictionary" under the general direction of Professor A. I. Smirnitsky. Also you will need sometimes refer to a dictionary where cultural information is given as well as commentaries on the usage of some English words and expressions in comparison with Russian. You will find useful the following: *Oxford Guide to British and American Culture*, «Лингвострановедческий словарь Соединённое Королевство Великобритании и Северной Ирландии» by Томахин Г. Д.

Going beyond this book

This book deals with many useful facts, ideas, concepts for intermediate and advanced learners, but it is clearly impossible to cover all the information you may need for effective communication and interpreting. The best way to increase your knowledge further is to read and listen to as much English as you can, observe what words and expressions are normally used by native speakers in different situations, do some research on concepts explaining similarities and differences between Russian and English. You can usefully expand your background cultural and linguistic knowledge by:

- reading fiction, newspapers, magazines, academic and professional literature
- exploring websites
- watching films, videos, cable TV
- listening to the radio, audio books

So, good luck to your study of English and the culture of the countries where English is spoken as the official language. We hope that you will learn a lot from using this book and that you will enjoy working with it.

Глава 1. Язык и культура Великобритании и других стран изучаемого языка (Модуль 1)

1.1. Теоретические основы лингвострановедения: цели, задачи предмета, метод и средства. Лингвострановедческая теория слова как составляющая лингвистического образования. Безэквивалентная и фоновая лексика, вербальные и невербальные средства общения

TEXT 1

Pre-reading activities:

1. Seven people were asked the question “What does communication mean?” Look at their answers. Which ones do you agree with?
 - Speaking fluently and confidently.
 - Sending and receiving messages at the right time.
 - Using your hands, body, voices to send messages.
 - Being able to write, read, speak and listen perfectly.
 - Being able to chatter in any situation.
 - Understanding and being understood.
 - Getting your message across.
2. Discuss your answers with a partner.
3. Read this text through quickly to complete this sentence:
According to the author, communication involves three main things: (1)....., (2) interpretation and (3)..... .

Communication

Communicating - or getting our message across - is the concern of us all in our daily lives in whatever language we happen to use. Learning to be better communicators is important to all of us in both our private and public lives. Better communication means better understanding of ourselves and others; less isolation from those around us and more productive, happy lives.

We begin at birth by interacting with those around us to keep warm, dry and fed. We learn very soon that the success of a particular communication strategy' depends on the willingness of others to understand and on the interpretation they give to our meaning. Whereas a baby's cry will be enough to bring a mother running with a clean nappy and warm milk in one instance, it may produce no response at all in another. We learn then that meaning is never one-sided. Rather, it is *negotiated*, between the persons involved.

As we grow up our needs grow increasingly complex, and along with them, our communication efforts. Different words, we discover, are appropriate in different settings. The expressions we hear in the playground or through the bedroom door may or may not be suitable at the supper table. We may decide to use them anyway to attract attention. Along with words, we learn to use intonation, gestures, facial expression, and many other features of communication to convey our meaning to persons around us. Most of our communication strategies develop unconsciously, through imitation of persons we admire and would like to resemble to some extent - and the success we experience in our interactions.

Formal training in the classroom affords us an opportunity to gain systematic practice in an even greater range of communicative activities. Group discussions, moderated by the teacher, give young learners important practice in taking turns, getting the attention of the group, stating one's views and perhaps disagreeing with others in a setting other than the informal family or playground situations with which they are familiar. Classrooms also provide practice in written communications of many kinds. Birthday cards are an early writing task for many children. Reports, essays, poems, business letters, and job application forms are routinely included in many school curricula and provide older learners with practical writing experience.

A concern for communication extends beyond school years and into adult life. Assertiveness training, the development of strategies for conquering stage fright, and an awareness of *body language* - the subtle messages conveyed by posture, hand movement, eyes, smile - are among the many avenues to improved communication as adults. The widespread popularity of guides to improving communication within couples and between parents and children illustrates our ever present concern with learning to communicate more effectively in our most intimate relationships, to understand and be understood by those closest to us.

Training of an even more specialized nature is available to those whose professional responsibilities or aspirations require it. Advice on how to dress and appear 'businesslike', including a recommendation for the deliberate use of technical jargon to establish authority, is available to professional women who want to be taken seriously in what has historically been considered a man's world. Specialized courses in interviewing techniques are useful for employers and others who interview people frequently in their professional lives.

One of the important lessons to be learnt here, as in other communicative contexts, is that what matters is not the intent but the interpretation of the communicative act. Conveyance of meaning in unfamiliar contexts requires practice in the use of the appropriate *register* or *style* of speech. If a woman wants to sound like a business executive, she has to talk the way business executives talk while they are on the job. The same register would of course be inappropriate when talking of personal matters with a spouse or intimate friend. Similarly, executives who must cope with an investigative reporter may be helped to develop an

appropriate style. They need to learn how to convey a sense of calm and self-assurance. Effective communication in this particular context may require the use of language to avoid a direct answer or to hide one's intent while appearing to be open and forthright. In both instances an understanding of what is *really* happening, as opposed to what one would *like* to see happening is the first step towards improved communication.

Communication, then, is a continuous process of *expression, interpretation* and *negotiation*.

(from Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice)

4. According to the author which of the elements of communication (A) are associated with different types of communication (B)?

A.

- writing
- understanding facial expression
- learning to get attention
- awareness of body language
- appropriate use of language
- learning to take turns in talking
- negotiation
- dress
- learning intonation
- technical jargon
- assertiveness training
- stating views

B.

- mother and baby
- 2-3-year-old and parents
- school children in class
- executives at business meeting
- boy and girl

5. Your thoughts:

- Are the elements of communication that the author mentions all equally important?
- Are you equally good at all these elements of communication in English?
- 'Communication involves expression, interpretation and negotiation.' Do you agree?

TEXT 2

Pre-reading activities:

1. Do you agree with the statement "Language is the most important means of communication"? What other means of communicating ideas do you know?
2. Read the text and answer the questions that follow it.

The importance of hand gestures

The old adage that words are not enough may have more than a ring of truth as scientists have discovered that the secret of communication is all in the hands. New research has shown that our hands - whether being shaken or gesturing - give away more about us than we realize. Once thought of as meaningless and even distracting, hand gestures have been shown to be far more important than the spoken word in getting the message across.

Body language has long been recognized as having importance, but the level of importance attached to handshakes is startling. Recent research has pointed to speech itself making up only 7 per cent of human communication while hand movements and body language make up well over 50 per cent. There is a common misconception that communicating is only speaking. If people are not allowed to gesture it can interfere with their communication and thought processes and certain ideas or thought processes may be more difficult to relay. Gestures help us think about what we want to say and communicate effectively. If there is anything we would like to keep secret from the rest of the world, it is probably best to sit on our hands.

3. According to the text, without hand movements
 - A. communication would be impossible.
 - B. first impressions would be more exact.
 - C. meaning is less likely to be conveyed.
 - D. it would be very difficult to think.
4. By saying we should 'sit on our hands' the writer suggests that
 - A. we are not aware of making gestures.
 - B. we cannot normally avoid expressive gestures.
 - C. gestures are not always acceptable.
 - D. gestures are good indicators of personality.
5. According to the text, what is the effect of restricting someone's freedom to gesture?
6. What do you know about gestures used in different cultures?

1.2. Понятие национальной картины мира и ее связи с языком, особенности языка различных социальных групп

TEXT 1

The East End

The East End grew with the spread of industries to the east of the City, and the growth of the port of London. It covers a wide area. A part like Bethnal Green, which was once a country village, is quite different from the areas down by the river, where there are many wharfs and warehouses.

It is also one of those areas of London where people from abroad have come to find work. For centuries foreigners have made London their home. Some have had to leave their country for religious or political reasons. Others have wanted to find a better life. Some brought new skills and started new industries. These days, many Jews and Bengalis live in the East End, and within a small area you can see a mosque, a church and a synagogue! The East End is especially famous as the centre of the clothing industry (or 'rag-trade') in London.

The East End markets are famous throughout the world. Petticoat Lane market takes place every Sunday morning and has become one of the sights of London. Street-salesmen promise that the goods are of the highest quality and much cheaper than those you can buy in the West End! 'Come on darlin'... amazin' bargain... you ain't seen nuffink like it!'

Traditionally someone born in the East End is known as a **cockney** although this name is now given to anyone who speaks like a Londoner. Typically they change certain vowel sounds so that the sound in 'late' becomes more like that in 'light'. In addition they don't use the usual 't' sound of standard English but stop the air in their throat. (Try saying 'bu'er' instead of 'butter'!) Like some foreign learners of English they seem to have a few problems with 'th' and use an 'f' instead!

During the last century, East End criminals developed a special kind of slang or language which made it difficult for the police to understand them. In certain parts of London this slang is still used, and some expressions have passed into normal, everyday English. It is called 'rhyming slang' because words are replaced by other words or phrases which rhyme. For example 'loaf of bread' means 'head', and 'butcher's hook' means 'look'. However, usually only the first word of the phrase is used, for example, 'Use your loaf!' means 'Use your head ... don't be silly!' and 'Let me have a butcher's.' means 'Let me have a look.'

PUZZLE

Here are some examples of rhyming slang. Match the words on the right with the rhyming slang on the left.

a) Barnet Fair	1. Telephone
b) Bees and honey	2. Mouth
c) Daisy roots	3. Feet
d) Plates of meat	4. Hair
e) North and South	5. Money
f) Dog and bone	6. Boots

TEXT 2

Language of age and social class

In English, certain expressions will date the speaker or place them in a particular social or age group. People are often judged on the way they speak and listeners may decide that the person is either posh (upper class, negative) or common (lower class, negative). Here are some disapproving words which are used to comment on a person's class.

expression	refers <i>to</i>	<i>comment</i>
a pleb	lower-class person	adjectives plebby (informal) and plebeian (formal)
an oik	lower-class man	implies bad behaviour
riff-raff	lower social class	implies lack of culture
hoi polloi	ordinary people	excludes the rich or the educated
the chattering classes	well-educated middle-class people	implies readiness to express an opinion on any subject
bourgeois	middle class	implies someone who is narrow-minded and materialistic (can also be used more objectively in a historical context)
the upper crust	upper class	people with money and influence
stuck-up/snooty	behaving in a snobbish way to lower-class people	implies someone who thinks that he or she is better than other people
new money	people who have recently become rich	implies spending money in a showy way
a toff	rich upper-class person	usually used humorously

People often continue to use the expressions that were popular when they were young. **Cool!** or **Wicked!** are the current terms of approval, whereas in the

1940s it was Spiffing! Similarly, the words people choose to use for inventions may also date them because older people may continue to use a name that was the everyday word in their youth but which has since changed. Thus, some older people may refer to a car as a **motor** (car), to a radio as a **wireless**, to trousers as **slacks**.

In general, older people, particularly older people from the upper classes, are more likely to use one as a pronoun, often where the meaning is really I: One doesn't always agree with what she has to say.

Social class in English affects vocabulary choice in some possibly unexpected ways as certain words are, for no obvious reason, held to be either common or posh, depending on your point of view.

Luncheon, for example, is an upper-class version of **lunch**. **Toilet** is considered by some people to be a more lower-class way of referring to the lavatory or loo. Addressing parents as Mother or Father rather than Mum or Dad also suggests that the speaker is likely to be upper class. These distinctions are probably less marked than they used to be, but you may come across them in works of fiction where they may be used by writers to indicate the social background of their characters.

Exercises

1. Choose the best word or expression from the box to fit each sentence.

bourgeois chattering classes oik common new money
riff-raff upper crust stuck-up

- 1) They're probably called the.....because they like to spend hours sitting at a pine dinner table over their fettucine discussing the latest book or exhibition.
- 2) Pink Rolls Royces are much more likely to be owned by.....than the old aristocracy.
- 3) I don't know why they allow such.....in a lovely classy restaurant like this.
- 4) Although her dad's a duke, she's not at all.....
- 5) Karl was glad to have escaped the.....attitudes of the small town he had grown up in and to be living in the much more liberal atmosphere of a city.
- 6) Her parents sent her to a private school mainly because they did not want her to grow up talking in a way that they considered.....
- 7) The expression.....derives from the fact that the most important people in the medieval dining hall were given the best or top part of a loaf of bread.
- 8) Maria's parents, Lord and Lady De Vere, are very upset that she wants to marry someone whom they consider to be an ignorant.....

2. What does the language used in the sentences below tell you about the speakers?

- 1) The whole family used to gather together and listen to the wireless every Sunday evening.
- 2) We all still dress for dinner even when no one is expected. One has to do one's best to keep up standards.
- 3) Old Jack has bought a spiffing new motor.
- 4) Your new mobile is wicked - I'll text you from uni this afternoon.
- 5) We wasn't doing nothing, was we, Tracey?

3. The comic novels by the writer P.G. Wodehouse about a 'toff called Bertie Wooster make extensive use of a now rather dated upper-class dialect of English. What do you think the underlined words, typical of these novels, mean?

- 1) Don't be such a chump! Aunt Angela won't bite you!
- 2) You must help me, old sport. I'm in an awful fix.
- 3) I'm short of money now but I'm hoping an old uncle, who's rolling in stuff, will kick the beam soon and leave me his fortune.

■ Read the play *Pygmalion* by Bernard Shaw which is based on the relationship between class and English. In the play, a professor tries to teach a poor lower-class girl to speak English in such a way that she can pass as a duchess. You can access the text of the play at: www.bartleby.com/138

1.3. Национально-культурная специфика речевого поведения, нормы межкультурного общения, нравы, национальный характер жителей разных частей Соединенного Королевства, разных стран изучаемого языка. Отражение национального характера в языке

TEXT 1

Pre-reading activities:

1. What do you know about British people, their character and lifestyles?
2. Where did you take the information from?

The British people as they are

Great Britain is an island on the outer edge of the European continent, and its geographical situation has produced a certain insular spirit among its inhabitants, who tend, a little more perhaps than other people, to regard their own community as the centre of the world. The insularity produces a certain particularism among the numerous groups of whom the whole community is composed.

The British look on foreigners in general with contempt and think that nothing is as well done elsewhere as in their own country. The British people have also been known as superior, snobbish, aloof, hypocritical and unsociable.

These characteristics have been noted by people from all over the world, but are they typical of all the Britons? The ordinary Briton was seen to be friendly and sociable. There are indeed two nations, with basically different outlooks and characters, in Britain. The two nations are defined simply as the rich and the poor. The traditional opinion about the British, or the English in earlier centuries, was based on the habits of those Britons who could afford to travel, the diplomats and merchants. English vanity and arrogance grew as England fought off the competition from other European countries and became the world's leading trading nation, going on to industrialize rapidly.

Englishmen tend to be rather conservative, they love familiar things. They are hostile, or at least bored, when they hear any suggestion that some modification of their habits, or the introduction of something new and unknown into their lives, might be to their advantage. This conservatism, on a national scale, may be illustrated by reference to the public attitude to the monarchy, an institution which is held in affection and reverence by nearly all English people.

Britain is supposed to be the land of law and order. Part of the British sense for law and orderliness is a love of precedent. For an Englishman, the best of all reasons for doing something in a certain way is that it has always been done in that way.

The Britons are practical and realistic; they are infatuated with common sense. They are not misled by romantic delusions.

The English sense and feeling for privacy is notorious. England is the land of brick fences and stone walls (often with glass embedded along the top), of hedges, of thick draperies at all the windows, and reluctant introductions, but nothing is stable now. English people rarely shake hands except when being introduced to someone for the first time. They hardly ever shake hands with their friends except seeing them after a long interval or saying good-bye before a long journey.

Snobbery is not so common in England today as it was at the beginning of the century. It still exists, however, and advertisers know how to use it in order to sell their goods. The advertisers are very clever in their use of snobbery. Motorcar manufactures, for example, advertise the colour of their cars as "Embassy Black" or "Balmoral Stone". Embassy black is plain, ordinary black, but the name suggests diplomats and all the social importance that surrounds them, and this is what the snobs need.

The British people are prudent and careful about almost everything. Their lawns are closely cropped, their flower beds primly cultivated, and their trees neatly pruned. Everything is orderly. Drinks are carefully measured, seats in a

cinema are carefully assigned (even if the theatre is empty you are required to sit in the seat assigned to you), closing hours rigorously observed.

A tradition that is rooted not only in their own soul, but in the minds of the rest of the world is the devotion of the English to animals. Animals are protected by law. If, for instance, any one leaves a cat to starve in an empty house while he goes for his holiday, he can be sent to prison. The Royal Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was founded half a century before its counterpart for the prevention of cruelty to children.

Most people in Britain work a five-day week, from Monday to Friday; schools, colleges and universities are also closed on Saturdays and Sundays. As Friday comes along, as people leave work they say to each other, "Have a nice week-end." Then on Monday morning they ask, "Did you have a nice week-end?"

On Sunday mid-mornings most British people indulge in some fairly light activities such as gardening, washing the car, shelling peas or chopping mint for Sunday lunch, or taking the dog for a walk. Another most popular pre-lunch activity consists of a visit to a "pub" — either a walk to the "local", or often nowadays a drive to a more pleasant "country pub" if one lives in a built-up area. The national drink in England is beer, and the "pub", where Englishmen go to drink to, is a peculiarly English institution.

Much leisure time is spent in individualistic pursuits, of which the most popular is gardening. Most English people love gardens, their own above all, and this is probably one reason why so many people prefer to live in houses rather than flats.

The British people are the world's greatest tea drinkers. They drink a quarter of all the tea grown in the world each year. Many of them drink tea on at least eight different occasions during the day.

The working people of Britain have had a long tradition of democracy, not so much in the sense of creating formal institutions, but in the active sense of popular cooperation to uphold the will of the people.

Answer the questions:

1. Why do some British people tend to regard their own community as the centre of the world?
2. What is the attitude of British people to their monarchy?
3. How do you understand the British snobbery? Give some examples.
4. Can you give examples of British people's prudentness and carefulness?
5. What is the English people's attitude to animals?
6. How do Britons like to spend their week-ends?
7. What is the most popular leisure time for most English people?

Talking points:

- The British sense for law and order is well known. What do you think about the Britons' habit to do everything in a certain way? Is it a good habit? What should parents (teachers) do to make their children (pupils) prudent and careful? What is your opinion?
- The British people are also known as superior, snobbish, aloof, hypocritical and unsociable. Does this characteristic refer to all of them? What do you think about English vanity: and arrogance? Can you give any examples borrowed from; books and films characterizing the British people? What do you think about the people of Great Britain ?
- Everybody knows about the devotion of the English to animals. It is also known about their cruelty to children, even in schools. What do you think about all of this? Can you understand and explain the English people's attitude towards animals and children? What do you think about it?

TEXT 2**English people's way of life. The English character**

The national character of the English has been very differently described, but most commentators agree over one quality, which they describe as fatuous self-satisfaction, serene sense of superiority, or insular pride. English patriotism is based on a deep sense of security. Englishmen as individuals may have been insecure, threatened with the loss of a job, unsure of themselves, or unhappy in many ways; but as a nation they have been for centuries secure, serene in their national successes. They have not lived in a state of hatred of their neighbours, as Frenchmen or Germans have often lived. This national sense of security, hardly threatened by the Armada, or by Napoleon, or by the First World War, has been greatly weakened by the Second World War and by the invention of the atomic bomb.

Many books have been written — even more, perhaps, by Frenchmen, Americans, Germans, and other foreigners than by Englishmen — on English traits, English ways of life, and the English character. Their authors are by no means' always in agreement, but they tend to point out what seems to them puzzles, contrasts, in the way the English behave. A few of these contrasts may serve to sum up how the world looks at the English.

First, there is the contrast between the unity the English display in a crisis, their strong sense for public order, indeed for conformity, and their extraordinary toleration of individual eccentricities. Germans are usually astounded by what they regard as the Englishman's lack of respect for authority and discipline. Frenchmen are often puzzled by the vehemence of English political debates, by the Hyde Park public orator, and similar aspects of English life, which in their own country would seem signs of grave political disturbance. This sort of contrast has led to the com-

mon belief held by foreigners, and indeed by Englishmen themselves, that they are a most illogical people, always preferring practical compromises to theoretical exactness.

Second, there is the contrast between English democracy, the English sense of the dignity and importance of the individual, and the very great social and economic inequalities that have hitherto characterized English life. There has recently been some tendency to allow greater social equality. But Victorian and Edwardian England — which foreigners still think of as the typical England — did display extremes of riches and poverty, and draw an almost caste line between ladies and gentlemen and those not ladies and gentlemen.

Third, there is the contrast between the reputation of the English as hard-headed practical men — the "nation of shopkeepers" — and as men of poetry — the countrymen of Shakespeare and Shelley. The English tradition in philosophy has always been realistic and hostile to mysticism; yet the English look down on the French as narrow rationalists. The apparent coldness of Englishmen and their reserve has been almost universally noted by foreigners; but foreigners also confess that they find English reserve not unpleasant, and that once one gets to know an Englishman he turns out to be a very companionable fellow.

TEXT 3

English habits of politeness

Some greetings in England are very informal: a simple "good morning" or a wave of the hand across the street is quite enough. Handshakes are only exchanged on a first introduction or as a token of agreement or congratulation. "Sorry" takes the place of "no" when you cannot do something for a person or give a positive answer in situation like "May I use your pen?", "Do you know the time?" or "Have you any size seven shoes?". "Pardon" is the polite way of asking somebody to repeat what he has said.

English people do not readily ask each other to do anything, they prefer to wait for a service to be offered before asking for it. If they do ask, then they say something like "I don't really like asking you, but..."

It is considered polite to give up one's seat to a woman who is standing, to open door for her, carry things for her, and so on.

Compare the rules of politeness in your country with those in Britain.

TEXT 4

English characteristics

In a nation of many million of people, there are many different kinds: good and bad, honest and dishonest, happy and unhappy.

The British people, who live in other countries are not fully typical of their nation. As usual, they live a completely different life from the life in Britain. However, we can talk about some general things. The best-known quality of the English, for example, is reserve. A reserved person is one who does not talk very much to strangers, does not show much emotion. He never tells you anything about himself. If English people are making a journey by train, they will try to find an empty compartment. If they have to share the compartment with a stranger, they may travel many miles without starting a conversation. If a conversation does start, personal questions like "How old are you?" or even "What is your name?" are not easily asked. Questions like "Where did you buy your watch?" or "What is your salary?" are impossible.

But the people of the North and West of Britain, especially the Welsh, are much less reserved than those of the South and East.

Closely related to English reserve is English modesty. If a person is, let us say, very good in golf, and someone asks him if he is a good player, he will probably give an answer like "I'm not bad", or "I think I'm quite good", or "Well, I'm very keen on golf".

The famous English sense of humour is similar. Its ideal is the ability to laugh at oneself — at one's own faults. "He is a man of humour" or "He has no sense of humour" is often heard in Britain, where humour is so highly prized.

TEXT 5

British Homes

The majority of the British population live in small houses built close together. A typical house of this kind is built with two floors. The front door, which faces the street, opens into a hall with two rooms, one on each side of the hall. One of them is the dining-room; the other may be called the sitting-room or the living-room. The most modern name for this room is the lounge.

The rooms upstairs are bedrooms; they are often very small. Often the dining-room is the most comfortable room in the house, and the one that is used all the time. The other members of the family bring their hobbies and games to the table. But when the television set is turned on, no one can do anything in the dining-room.

Very many houses of this type were built in British cities in the 19th and early 20th centuries. Today the land on which they stand has become very valuable and the owners either sell it or pull down the old houses and build large blocks of flats. In this way the owners make more money.

Many British people give their suburban house a name, such as the Cedars, the Poplars, The Rhubard Cottage, even though there are no trees or vegetables in their gardens. People of high social position have country houses with names, so a

house with a name seems "better" than a house with a number. Numbers make the postman's work much easier, but this is not important.

Answer the questions:

1. What do you think about British homes? Why do some people give names to their suburban houses? Is it so useful and necessary?
2. How do you understand the saying "The Englishman's home is his castle"? Explain it.

(from Read and Speak about Britain, Satinova.)

1.4. Приёмы анализа языка и выявления национально-культурной семантики, приёмы введения, закрепления и активации специфических для английского языка единиц и страноведческого прочтения текстов

Connotation is concerned with the associations which a word or expression has.

Now that you are at an advanced level of English you need to become more aware not only of what words mean but also of what their connotations are. Connotation is the term which linguists use to refer to the associations which words have for speakers of a language.

For example, the word **cowboy**, as used in an expression like **cowboy builders** or **cowboy plumbers**, has associations of dishonesty and unreliability.

The connotations which words have are often exploited in advertisements. For example, an advertisement for an Indian firm of builders took the slogan: *You've tried the cowboys. Now try the Indians.*

This slogan draws on two sets of connotations - the *cowboy* association mentioned above and the association of *cowboys and Indians* as from Wild West films. It neatly suggests that Indians, as the traditional opponents of cowboys, embody as builders the opposite characteristics of honesty and reliability.

Very often connotations may be quite personal. Someone who had a bad experience of dogs in childhood may think of a dog as being fierce and frightening, whereas for others dogs may represent loyalty and friendship. It may help you to learn words if you keep your own personal connotations in mind as you try to memorise them.

For example, imagine that you want to learn the three words below. What personal associations do they have for you? Close your eyes and imagine these things in your own personal context as you try to learn the words.

a shark

a scar

a diamond

Some connotations, however, are shared by all or most members of a language group and you need to appreciate what such connotations are in order fully to understand much of modern writing, in particular journalism. What are the connotations of *shark*, *scar* and *diamond* for English speakers in general?

Connotations used in journalism may be quite short-lived. The phrase **The Iron Lady**, for example, used to refer to Mrs Thatcher when she was Prime Minister of Britain in the 1980s, (the image being of a strong, hard and unyielding woman), soon lost any strong associations for most people when she lost office. Sometimes connotations are not the same for all native speakers of the same language but may vary from one geographical area to the next. **Black cats**, for example, have associations with *good luck* in Britain but with *bad luck* in the USA. Good modern dictionaries will give you information about widely shared connotations.

The connotations which words have in English may be the same in your language too. Can you match the colours with their connotations in English? Are any of these the same in your language?

- | | |
|----------|---------------|
| 1 blue | purity |
| 2 green | evil |
| 3 yellow | miserable |
| 4 red | inexperienced |
| 5 white | danger |
| 6 black | a coward |

Be aware of connotations in your own reading and listening. Make notes of any interesting examples you encounter.

Exercise on the full understanding of English words and phrases:

The following extract is from a short story by Angus Wilson published in 1957 but set in a suburban town in 1949. a young wife, Carola, and her husband, both of whom feel 'inferior' in the society, and who aim to improve themselves socially and intellectually are visiting a 'superior couple', Sheila and her husband, themselves unaware of their lack of breeding, in spite of their good education and upbringing.

Translate into Russian the paragraphs about Carola and Sheila paying special attention to the underlined words. Use Lingvisticountrystudy dictionary. (Лингвострановедческий словарь)

Carola :

With her new French blue costume and red leather belt she felt very certain of herself; even her lipstick, she thought, was right for once, would give no hint of the Chapel background of which she was always too aware whey they visited Sheila

Sheila:

She embodied three generations of business success — her own plain black dress and gay Jacqmar scarf speaking for bookish Roedean and Girton, something in her over-cultured voice for her mother's feverish W.V.S. attempts to 'make the county', and deep down a vulgar rumble that declared her grand mother's feverish over-jewelled, nouveau rich toughness.

Глава 2. Государственное устройство. Природно-географическая среда Великобритании

2.1. Природно-географическая среда Великобритании, её отдельных регионов

Pre-reading activities.

Discuss the following questions:

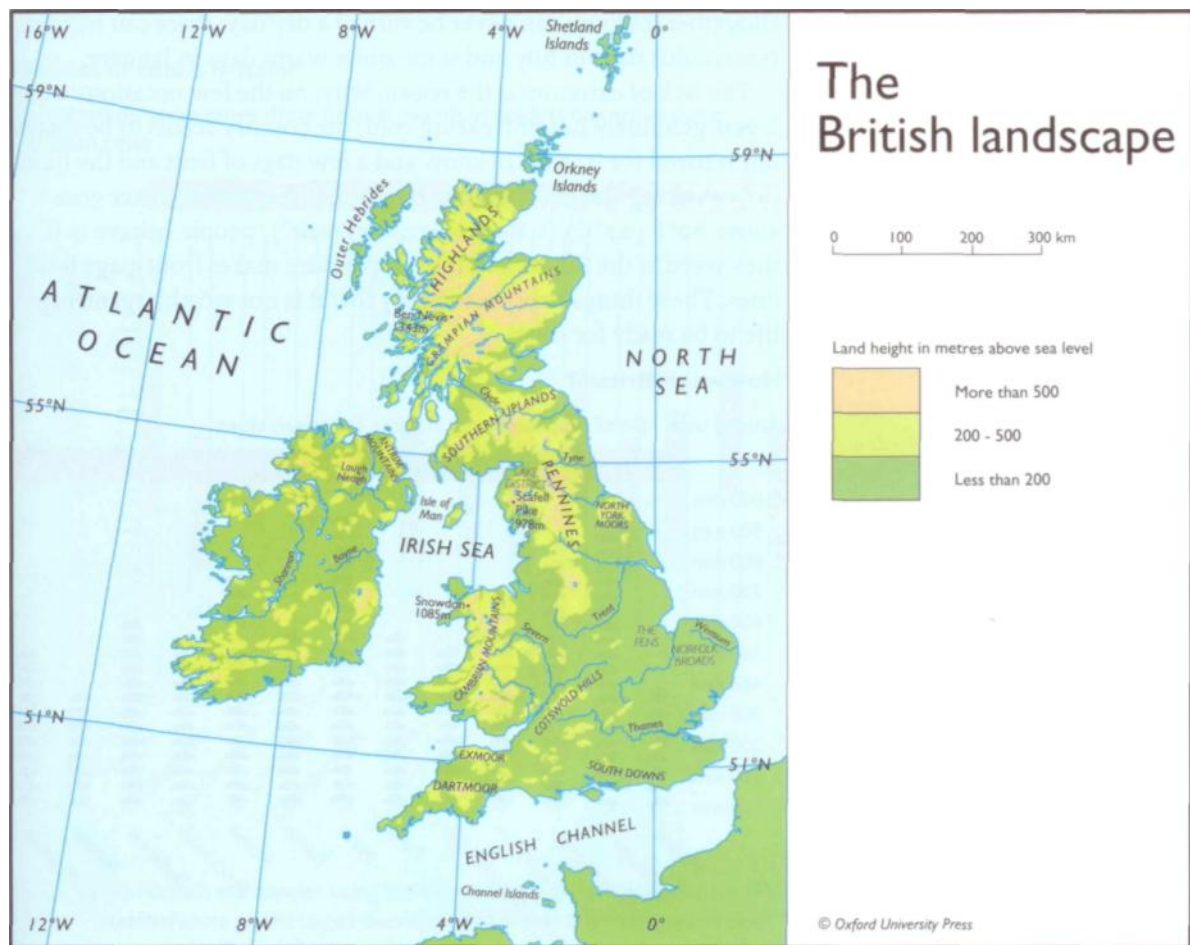
1. Do you know why it would be wise to take an umbrella with you on a visit to Britain?
2. Can you think of a number of reasons why England is not predominantly a farming country?
3. What do you know about the climate and weather of Britain?

TEXT 1

Read the text

Geography

It has been claimed that the British love of compromise is the result of the country's physical geography. (see *picture 1*) This may or may not be true, but it is certainly true that the land and climate in Britain have a notable lack of extremes. Britain has mountains, but none of them are very high; it also has flat land, but you cannot travel far without encountering hills; it has no really big rivers; it doesn't usually get very cold in the winter or very hot in the summer; it has no active volcanoes, and an earth tremor which does no more than rattle teacups in a few houses is reported in the national news media.



Picture 1. The British Landscape

TEXT 2

Climate

The climate of Britain is more or less the same as that of the northwestern part of the European mainland. The popular belief that it rains all the time in Britain is simply not true. The image of a wet, foggy land was created two thousand years ago by the invading Romans and has been perpetuated in modern times by Hollywood. In fact, London gets no more rain in a year than most other major European cities, and less than some.

The amount of rain that falls on a town in Britain depends on where it is. Generally speaking, the further west you go, the more rain you get. The mild winters mean that snow is a regular feature of the higher areas only. Occasionally, a whole winter goes by in lower-lying parts without any snow at all. The winters are in general a bit colder in the east of the country than they are in the west, while in summer, the south is slightly warmer and sunnier than the north.

Why has Britain's climate got such a bad reputation? Perhaps it is for the same reason that British people always seem to be talking about the weather. This is its changeability. There is a saying that Britain doesn't have a climate, it only has

weather. It may not rain very much altogether, but you can never be sure of a dry day; there can be cool (even cold) days in July and some quite warm days in January.

The lack of extremes is the reason why, on the few occasions when it gets genuinely hot or freezing cold, the country seems to be totally unprepared for it. A bit of snow and a few days of frost and the trains stop working and the roads are blocked; if the thermometer goes above 80°F (27°C), people behave as if they were in the Sahara and the temperature makes front-page headlines. These things happen so rarely that it is not worth organizing life to be ready for them.

TEXT 3

Land and settlement

Britain has neither towering mountain ranges, nor impressively large rivers, plains or forests. But this does not mean that its landscape is boring. What it lacks in grandeur it makes up for in variety. The scenery changes noticeably over quite short distances. It has often been remarked that a journey of 100 miles (160 kilometres) can, as a result, seem twice as far. Overall, the south and east of the country is comparatively low-lying, consisting of either flat plains or gently rolling hills. Mountainous areas are found only in the north and west, although these regions also have flat areas. Human influence has been extensive. The forests that once covered the land have largely disappeared. Britain has a greater proportion of grassland than any other country in Europe except the Republic of Ireland. One distinctive human influence, especially common in southern England, is the enclosure of fields with hedgerows. This feature increases the impression of variety. Although many hedgerows have disappeared in the second half of the twentieth century (farmers have dug them up to increase the size of their fields and become more efficient), there are still enough of them to support a great variety of bird-life.

Much of the land is used for human habitation. This is not just because Britain is densely populated. Partly because of their desire for privacy and their love of the countryside, the English and the Welsh don't like living in blocks of flats in city centres and the proportion of people who do so is lower than in other European countries. As a result, cities in England and Wales have, wherever possible, been built outwards rather than upwards (although this is not so much the case in Scottish cities). For example, Greater London has about three times the population of greater Athens but it occupies ten times the area of land.

However, because most people (about 7c%) live in towns or cities rather than in villages or in the countryside, this habit of building outwards does not mean that you see buildings wherever you go in Britain. There are areas of completely open countryside everywhere and some of the mountainous areas remain virtually untouched.

TEXT 4

The environment and pollution

It was in Britain that the word 'smog' was first used (to describe a mixture of smoke and fog). As the world's first industrialized country, its cities were the first to suffer this atmospheric condition. In the nineteenth century London's 'pea-soupers' (thick smogs) became famous through descriptions of them in the works of Charles Dickens and in the Sherlock Holmes stories. The situation in London reached its worst point in 19C2. At the end of that year a particularly bad smog, which lasted for several days, was estimated to have caused between 4,000 and 8,000 deaths.

Water pollution was also a problem. In the nineteenth century it was once suggested that the Houses of Parliament should be wrapped in enormous wet sheets to protect those inside from the awful smell of the River Thames. Until the 1960s, the first thing that happened to people who fell into the Thames was that they were rushed to hospital to have their stomachs pumped out!

Then, during the 1960s and 1970s, laws were passed which forbade the heating of homes with open coal fires in city areas and which stopped much of the pollution from factories. At one time, a scene of fog in a Hollywood film was all that was necessary to symbolize London. This image is now out of date, and by the end of the 1970s it was said to be possible to catch fish in the Thames outside Parliament.

However, as in the rest of western Europe, the great increase in the use of the motor car in the last quarter of the twentieth century caused an increase in a new kind of air pollution. This problem has become so serious that the television weather forecast now regularly issues warnings of 'poor air quality'. On some occasions it is bad enough to prompt official advice that certain people (such as asthma sufferers) should not even leave their houses, and that nobody should take any vigorous exercise, such as jogging, out of doors.

TEXT 5

Southern England

The area surrounding the outer suburbs of London has the reputation of being 'commuter land'. This is the most densely populated area in the UK which does not include a large city, and millions of its inhabitants travel into London to work every day.

Further out from London the region has more of its own distinctive character. The county of Kent, which you pass through when travelling from Dover or the Channel tunnel to London, is known as 'the garden of England' because of the many kinds of fruit and vegetables grown there. The Downs, a series of hills in a horseshoe shape to the south of London, are used for sheep

farming (though not as intensively as they used to be). The southern side of the Downs reaches the sea in many places and forms the white cliffs of the south coast. Many retired people live along this coast. Employment in the south-east of England is mainly in trade, the provision of services and light manufacturing. There is little heavy industry. It has therefore not suffered the slow economic decline of many other parts of England.

The region known as 'the West Country' has an attractive image of rural beauty in British people's minds - notice the use of the word 'country' in its name. There is some industry and one large city (Bristol was once Britain's most important port after London), but farming is more widespread than it is in most other regions. Some parts of the west country are well-known for their dairy produce, such as Devonshire cream, and fruit. The south-west peninsula, with its rocky coast, numerous small bays (once noted for smuggling activities) and wild moorlands such as Exmoor and Dartmoor, is the most popular holiday area in Britain. The winters are so mild in some low-lying parts that it is even possible to grow palm trees, and the tourist industry has coined the phrase 'the English Riviera'.

East Anglia, to the north-east of London, is also comparatively rural. It is the only region in Britain where there are large expanses of uniformly flat land. This flatness, together with the comparatively dry climate, has made it the main area in the country for the growing of wheat and other arable crops. Part of this region, the area known as the Fens, has been reclaimed from the sea, and much of it still has a very watery, misty feel to it. The Norfolk Broads, for example, are criss-crossed by hundreds of waterways but there are no towns here, so this is a popular area for boating holidays.

The Midlands

Birmingham is Britain's second largest city. During the Industrial Revolution, Birmingham, and the surrounding area of the West Midlands (sometimes known as the Black Country) developed into the country's major engineering centre. Despite the decline of heavy industry in modern times, factories in this area still convert iron and steel into a vast variety of goods.

There are other industrial areas in the Midlands, notably the towns between the Black Country and Manchester known as The Potteries (famous for producing china such as that made at the factories of Wedgewood, Spode and Minton), and several towns in the East Midlands, such as Derby, Leicester and Nottingham. On the east coast, Grimsby, although a comparatively small town, is one of Britain's most important fishing ports.

Although the midlands do not have many positive associations in the minds of British people, tourism has flourished in 'Shakespeare country' (centred on Stratford-upon-Avon, Shakespeare's birthplace), and Nottingham has successfully capitalized on the legend of Robin Hood

Northern England

The Pennine mountains run up the middle of northern England like a spine. On either side, the large deposits of coal (used to provide power) and iron ore (used to make machinery) enabled these areas to lead the Industrial Revolution in the eighteenth century. On the western side, the Manchester area (connected to the port of Liverpool by canal) became, in the nineteenth century, the world's leading producer of cotton goods; on the eastern side, towns such as Bradford and Leeds became the world's leading producers of woollen goods. Many other towns sprang up on both sides of the Pennines at this time, as a result of the growth of certain auxiliary industries and of coal mining. Further south, Sheffield became a centre for the production of steel goods. Further north, around Newcastle, shipbuilding was the major industry.

In the minds of British people the prototype of the noisy, dirty factory that symbolizes the Industrial Revolution is found in the industrial north. But the achievements of these new industrial towns also induced a feeling of civic pride in their inhabitants and an energetic realism, epitomized by the clichéd saying 'where there's muck there's brass' (wherever there is dirt, there is money to be made).

The decline in heavy industry in Europe in the second half of the twentieth century hit the industrial north of England hard. For a long time, the region as a whole has had a level of unemployment significantly above the national average.

The towns on either side of the Pennines are flanked by steep slopes on which it is difficult to build and are surrounded by land most of which is unsuitable for any agriculture other than sheep farming. Therefore, the pattern of settlement in the north of England is often different from that in the south. Open and uninhabited countryside is never far away from its cities and towns. The typically industrial and the very rural interlock. The wild, windswept moors which are the setting for Emily Bronte's famous novel *Wuthering Heights* seem a world away from the smoke and grime of urban life - in fact, they are just up the road (about 100 kilometres) from Bradford!

Further away from the main industrial areas, the north of England is sparsely populated. In the north-western corner of the country is the Lake District. The Romantic poets of the nineteenth century, Wordsworth, Coleridge and Southey (the 'Lake Poets'), lived here and wrote about its beauty. It is the favourite destination of people who enjoy walking holidays and the whole area is classified as a National Park (the largest in England).

Scotland

Scotland has three fairly clearly-marked regions. Just north of the border with England are the southern uplands, an area of small towns, quite far apart from each other, whose economy depends to a large extent on sheep farming. Further north, there is the central plain. Finally, there are the highlands, consisting of mountains and deep valleys and including numerous small islands off the west

coast. This area of spectacular natural beauty occupies the same land area as southern England but fewer than a million people live there. Tourism is important in the local economy, and so is the production of whisky.

It is in the central plain and the strip of east coast extending northwards from it that more than 80% of the population of Scotland lives. In recent times, this region has had many of the same difficulties as the industrial north of England, although the North Sea oil industry has helped to keep unemployment down.

Scotland's two major cities have very different reputations. Glasgow is the third largest city in Britain. It is associated with heavy industry and some of the worst housing conditions in Britain (the district called the Gorbals, although now rebuilt, was famous in this respect). However, this image is one-sided. Glasgow has a strong artistic heritage. A hundred years ago the work of the Glasgow School (led by Mackintosh) put the city at the forefront of European design and architecture. In 1990, it was the European City of Culture. Over the centuries, Glasgow has received many immigrants from Ireland and in some ways it reflects the divisions in the community that exist in Northern Ireland (see chapter 4). For example, of its two rival football teams, one is Catholic (Celtic) and the other is Protestant (Rangers).

Edinburgh, which is half the size of Glasgow, has a comparatively middle-class image (although class differences between the two cities are not really very great). It is the capital of Scotland and is associated with scholarship, the law and administration. This reputation, together with its many fine historic buildings, and also perhaps its topography (there is a rock in the middle of the city on which stands the castle) has led to its being called 'the Athens of the north'. The annual Edinburgh Festival of the arts is internationally famous.

Wales

As in Scotland, most people in Wales live in one small part of it. In the Welsh case, it is the south-east of the country that is most heavily populated. Coal has been mined in many parts of Britain, but just as British people would locate the prototype factory of the industrial revolution in the north of England, so they would locate its prototype coal mine in south Wales. Despite its industry, no really large cities have grown up in this area (Cardiff, the capital of Wales, has a population of about a quarter of a million). It is the only part of Britain with a high proportion of industrial villages. Coal mining in south Wales has now ceased and, as elsewhere, the transition to other forms of employment has been slow and painful.

Most of the rest of Wales is mountainous. Because of this, communication between south and north is very difficult. As a result, each part of Wales has closer contact with its neighbouring part of England than it does with other parts of Wales: the north with Liverpool, and mid-Wales with the English west midlands.

The area around Mount Snowdon in the north-west of the country is very beautiful and is the largest National Park in Britain. (see *picture 2*)



Picture 2. Part of Snowdonia National Park

Northern Ireland

With the exception of Belfast, which is famous for the manufacture of linen (and which is still a shipbuilding city), this region is, like the rest of Ireland, largely agricultural. It has several areas of spectacular natural beauty. One of these is the Giant's Causeway on its north coast, so-called because the rocks in the area form what look like enormous stepping stones.

Exercises:

1. Discuss the following questions:

1. Bearing in mind its climate and general character, which part of Britain would you choose to live in? Why? Is this the same part that you would like to visit for a holiday? Why (not?)
2. Is Dublin or Belfast the capital of Northern Ireland?
3. How does Southern England differ from Northern England?
4. Which mountains run up the middle of northern England?
5. Why is the county in Southern England known as “the garden of England”?
6. What is Britain’s second largest city? Call the area where it’s situated.
7. What are Scotland’s two major cities?
8. What is the capital of Wales?

2. Explain the essence and geographical associations and facts:

1. the physical geography
2. an earth tremor

3. a wet, foggy land
4. the amount of rain
5. the changeability of Britain's weather
6. love of the countryside
7. the word 'smog'
8. the Lake District
9. the highlands
10. the Giant's Causeway

3. Translate into English. Use the words from the text.

Существует определенное сходство между климатическими условиями Великобритании и северо-западной части Европейского континента. Существует мнение, что дождь в Соединенном Королевстве идет постоянно. Хотя на самом деле, это далеко не так. Погода в Великобритании очень изменчива, никогда нельзя быть уверенным, что дождя сегодня не будет. Но в то же время, среднее количество осадков не превышает показателей большинства европейских городов.

2.2. Название страны. Государственное устройство. Парламент, избирательная система, правительство, партии

TEXT 1

The House of Commons

The House of Commons is made up of 635 elected members, known as Members of Parliament (MPs). The House of Commons is presided over by the Speaker, a member acceptable to the whole House. MPs sit on two sides of the hall, one side for the governing party and the other for the opposition. The first two rows of seats **are** occupied by the leading members of both parties (called 'front-benchers'), the back benches belong to the rank-and-file MPs ('back-benchers'). Each session of the House of Commons lasts for 160—175 days. Parliament has intervals during its work. MPs are paid for their parliamentary work and have to attend the sittings. MPs have to catch the Speaker's eye when they want to speak, then they rise from where they have been sitting to address the House and must do so without either reading a prepared speech or consulting notes.

Although there is some space given to other than government proposals, the lion's share of parliamentary time is taken by the party in power. A proposed law, a bill, has to go through three stages in order to become an Act of Parliament. These are called readings. The first reading is a formality and is simply the publication of the proposal. The second reading involves debate on the principles of the bill, its

examination by a parliamentary committee, and the third reading—a report stage, when the work of the committee is reported on to the House. This is usually the most important stage in the process. The third reading is often a formality too; if six members table a motion⁵, then there has to be a debate on the third reading. If the majority of MPs still vote for the bill, it is sent to the House of Lords for discussion. When the Lords agree, the bill is taken to the Queen for Royal assent. All bills must pass through both houses before being sent for signature by the Queen, when they become Acts of Parliament and the Law of the Land.

TEXT 2

The House of Lords

The other House of Parliament is the House of Lords. The House of Lords has more than 1,000 members, although only about 250 take an active part in the work of the House. This House consists of those lords who sit by right of inheritance and those men and women who have been given life peerages which end with the life of their possessors. Members of this Upper House are not elected. They sit there because of their rank. The chairman of the House of Lords is the Lord Chancellor and he sits on a special seat called the Woolsack.

The members of the House of Lords debate a bill after it has been passed by the House of Commons. Changes may be recommended, and agreement between the two Houses is reached by negotiation. The Lords' main power consists of being able to delay non-financial bills for a period of a year, but they can also introduce certain types of bill. The House of Lords is the only non-elected second chamber in the parliaments of the world, and some people in Britain would like to abolish it.

The division of Parliament into two Houses goes back over some 700 years when a feudal assembly assisted the King. In modern times, real political power rests with the elected House although members of the House of Lords may occupy important cabinet posts.

TEXT 3

Political Parties

Political parties first emerged in Britain at the end of the 17th century. The Conservative¹ and Liberal Parties are the oldest and until the end of the 19th century they were the only parties elected to the House of Commons. The main British political groupings are the Conservative and Labour³ Parties and the Party of Liberal Democrats. The Conservative Party is the present ruling party, the Labour Party—the opposition to the Conservative—and the party of Liberal Democrats is called 'conservatively oriented'. The Social Democratic Party was formed in 1981 and made an alliance with the Liberal Party in 1988.

There are also some other parties: the Scottish National and Welsh Nationalist Parties, the Communist Party of Britain and the Communist Party of Great Britain. Because of the electoral method in use, only two major parties obtain seats in the House of Commons. People belonging to smaller political parties join one of the larger parties and work from within to make their influence felt. The exception to this are members of the Scottish National and Welsh Nationalist Parties, who, because their votes are concentrated in specific geographical areas, can manage to win seats although their total support is relatively small.

TEXT 4

The Conservative Party

The Conservative Party, often called the Tory Party, is one of those which can trace its roots back to this early period. Today the Tory Party is that of big business, industry, commerce and landowners. Most of the money needed to run the party comes from large firms and companies. The party represents those who believe in private enterprise as opposed to state-owned undertakings. There is some division within the party itself: the more aristocratic wing and the lower-middle-class group. The Tories are a mixture of the rich and privileged—the monopolists and landowners. The Conservative Party is the most powerful and is often called a party of business directors.

The word 'tory' means an Irish highwayman and was applied to the conservatives by their opponents but later they adopted the name to describe themselves. The Tories opposed the ideas of the French Revolution, Parliamentary Reform and the development of Trade Unionism. They represent colonial policy. In home policy they opposed the tendencies of the Labour Party to nationalize gas, electricity, coal and the railways. Today the Conservative Party can broadly be described as the party of the middle and upper classes.

TEXT 5

The Liberal Party and the Labour Party

The Conservative Party and the Liberal Party are more than three hundred years old. The Tories called the Liberals 'Whigs'. A 'whig' was a Scottish preacher who could go on for 4 or 5 hours at a time preaching moralising sermons. In the middle of the 19th century the Liberal Party represented the trading and manufacturing classes. Its slogan at that time was 'Civil and Religious Liberty'. William Gladstone headed the first administration (1868—74) and for long periods the Liberals had a Parliamentary majority. During the second half of the 19th century many working people looked at the Liberal Party as an alternative to the Conservatives and their policy.

At the end of the 19th century and in the first two decades of this, the Liberals lost the support of working-class voters. In 1988 the Liberal Party made an alliance with Social Democrats and the Party of Liberal Democrats was formed.

The Labour Party, formed in 1900, was the one which drew away working people's support. It was founded by the Trades Unions. When the Labour Government was first elected in 1945 it showed a considerable change in policy from the Tories.

Since 1924 the Labour Party has been in and out of power four times with the Conservatives forming the government for the rest of the time. The social system has remained unchanged. As a result of divisions within the Labour Party its right-wing members broke away in 1981 to form a new organization, the Social Democratic Party. The latter fought the 1983 election in an alliance with the Liberals, but only a small number of their MPs were elected. They would like to change the electoral system because they think the present system unfair.

Can You Answer These Questions?

1. Is the Queen of the United Kingdom also the Queen of some other countries?
2. What are the powers of the monarch in the UK?
3. Who does the real power in the UK belong to?
4. What do the letters MP stand for?
5. What is the minimum voting age in the UK?
6. Who chooses candidates in elections in the UK?
7. Who chooses the Cabinet of Ministers?
8. Who are called 'front-benchers' and 'back-benchers'?
9. How long does a session of the House of Commons last?
10. What is 'a reading' in Parliament?
11. What is 'the Woolsack'?
12. Which political parties in the UK can you name?
13. Who are called 'the Tories' and who were called 'the Whigs'?
14. What are the two groups of British newspapers?
15. What do the letters BBC stand for?
16. What is 'Top of the Pops'?

What Do You Know About...

- 1) the Queen and her powers?
- 2) the election campaign in the UK?
- 3) the stages a bill passes before it becomes an Act of Parliament?
- 4) the political parties in the UK?
- 5) British newspapers?
- 6) the BBC programmes?
- 7) the House of Commons in session?
- 8) the parties represented in Parliament?

2.3. Британские регионы (Уэльс, Шотландия, Северная Ирландия, Англия). Языки жителей Соединенного королевства. Корни национализма

Pre-reading activities. Discuss the following questions:

1. In 1970, the BBC showed a series of programmes about the history of the British Empire. Before the series started, they advertised it. The advertisement mentioned "England's history". Within a few hours, the BBC had received thousands of angry calls of protest and it was forced to make an apology. Who do you think the angry callers were? Why did the BBC apologize?
2. The dominance of England in Britain is reflected in the organization of the government. There are ministers for Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, but there is no minister for England. Do you think this is good for the people of the other British nations (they have special attention and recognition of their distinct identity) or is it bad (it gives them a kind of second-class, colonial status)?
3. Are there any distinct national loyalties in your country (or are they better described as regional loyalties)? Can you think of any other countries where such loyalties exist? Do these loyalties cause problems in those countries?

TEXT 1

Read the text

Country and people

Geographically speaking

Lying off the north-west coast of Europe, there are two large islands and several much smaller ones. Collectively, they are known as The British Isles. The largest island is called Great Britain. The other large one is called Ireland.

Politically speaking

In the British Isles there are two states. One of these governs most of the island of Ireland. This state is usually called The Republic of Ireland. It is also called 'Eire' (its Irish language name). Informally it is referred to as just 'Ireland' or 'the Republic'.

The other state has authority over the rest of the British Isles (the whole of Great Britain, the northeastern area of Ireland and most of the smaller islands). This is the country that is the main subject of this book. Its official name is The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland although it is usually known by a shorter name. At the Euro-vision Song Contest, at the United Nations and in the European Parliament, for instance, it is referred to as 'the United Kingdom'. In everyday speech this is often shortened to 'the UK'. In other contexts it is referred

to as 'Great Britain'. This, for example, is the name you hear when a gold medal winner steps onto the rostrum at the Olympic Games. The stickers on cars ('GB') are another example of the use of this name. In writing and speaking that is not especially formal or informal, the name 'Britain' is used. The normal adjective, when talking about something to do with the UK, is 'British'.

The four nations

People often refer to Britain by another name. They call it 'England'. But this is not strictly correct, and it can make some people angry. England is only one of the four nations of the British Isles (England, Scotland, Wales and Ireland). Their political unification was a gradual process that took several hundred years. It was completed in 1800 when the Irish Parliament was joined with the Parliament for England, Scotland and Wales in Westminster, so that the whole of the British Isles became a single state — the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. However, in 1922, most of Ireland became a separate state.

At one time the four nations were distinct from each other in almost every aspect of life. In the first place, they were different racially. The people in Ireland, Wales and highland Scotland belonged to the Celtic race; those in England and lowland Scotland were mainly of Germanic origin. This difference was reflected in the languages they spoke. People in the Celtic areas spoke Celtic languages: Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic and Welsh. Take, for example, the use of the Welsh language. At the end of the nineteenth century over 50 per cent still spoke Welsh as their first language. Since then the situation has changed a lot. Because of fears that the Welsh language might disappear completely, its study has become compulsory in Welsh schools, and there is now Welsh medium radio and television. As a result 19 per cent still use Welsh, mainly in the north west and mid-Wales and many more over a wide area now understand it. The survival of the Welsh language is the most notable way in which the Welsh keep their special identity. Scottish Gaelic is only spoken in rural North –Western Scotland. Irish Gaelic (Erse) is the natural speech of only small numbers along the West coast. People in the Germanic areas spoke Germanic dialects (including the one which has developed into modern English). The nations also tended to have different economic, social and legal systems.

Today these differences have become blurred. But they have not completely disappeared. Although there is only one government for the whole of Britain, and people have the same passport regardless of where in Britain they live, some aspects of government are organized separately (and sometimes differently) in the four parts of the United Kingdom. Moreover, Welsh, Scottish and Irish people feel their identity very strongly.

The dominance of England

There is, perhaps, an excuse for people who use the word 'England' when they mean 'Britain'. It cannot be denied that the dominant culture of Britain today is specifically English. The system of politics that is used in all four nations today is of English origin, and English is the main language of all four nations. Many aspects of everyday life are organized according to English custom and practice. But the political unification of Britain was not achieved by mutual agreement. On the contrary. It happened because England was able to exert her economic and military power over the other three nations.

Today English domination can be detected in the way in which various aspects of British public life are described. For example, the supply of money in Britain is controlled by the Bank of England (there is no such thing as a 'Bank of Britain'). The present queen of the country is universally known as 'Elizabeth the Second', even though Scotland and Northern Ireland have never had an 'Elizabeth the First'! (Elizabeth I of England and Wales ruled from 1553 to 1603.) The term 'Anglo' is also commonly used. (The Angles were a Germanic tribe who settled in England in the fifth century. The word 'England' is derived from their name.) For example, newspapers and the television news talk about 'Anglo-American relations' to refer to relations between the governments of Britain and the USA (and not just those between England and the USA).

National loyalties

When you are talking to people from Britain, it is safest to use 'Britain' when talking about where they live and 'British' as the adjective to describe their nationality. This way you will be less likely to offend anyone. It is, of course, not wrong to talk about 'people in England' if that is what you mean - people who live within the geographical boundaries of England. After all, most British people live there (Populations in 1995: England 48,9 million; Scotland 5,1 million; Wales 2,9 million; Northern Ireland 1,6 million; UK total 58,6 million). But it should always be remembered that England does not make up the whole of the UK.

There has been a long history of migration from Scotland, Wales and Ireland to England. As a result there are millions of people who live in England but who would never describe themselves as English. They may have lived in England all their lives, but as far as they are concerned they are Scottish or Welsh or Irish - even if, in the last case, they are citizens of Britain and not of Eire. These people support the country of their parents or grandparents rather than England in sporting contests. They would also, given the chance, play for that country rather than England. If, for example, you had heard the members of the Republic of Ireland World Cup football team talking in 1994, you would have heard several different kinds of English accent and some Scottish accents, but only a few Irish accents. Most of the players did not live in Ireland and were not brought up in Ireland.

Nevertheless, most of them would never have considered playing for any country other than Ireland!

The same holds true for the further millions of British citizens whose family origins lie outside the British Isles altogether. People of Caribbean or south Asian descent, for instance, do not mind being described as 'British' (many are proud of it), but many of them would not like to be called 'English'. And whenever the West Indian or Indian cricket team plays against England, it is certainly not England that they support!

There is, in fact, a complicated division of loyalties among many people in Britain, and especially in England. A black person whose family are from the Caribbean will passionately support the West Indies when they play cricket against England. But the same person is quite happy to support England just as passionately in a sport such as football, which the West Indies do not play. A person whose family are from Ireland but who has always lived in England would want Ireland to beat England at football but would want England to beat (for example) Italy just as much. This crossover of loyalties can work the other way as well. English people do not regard the Scottish, the Welsh or the Irish as 'foreigners' (or, at least, not as the same kind of foreigners as other foreigners!). An English commentator of a sporting event in which a Scottish, Irish or Welsh team is playing against a team from outside the British Isles tends to identify with that team as if it were English.

Exercises:

1. Discuss the following questions:

1. What is the official name of the UK?
2. What happened in 1800?
3. Who were the ancestors of the four nations? Were they different racially? Where was this difference reflected?
4. What is the difference between England and Britain?
5. What does the dominance of England mean?

2. Choose the correct word(s) to complete each sentence.

1. The normal adjective, when talking about something to do with the UK, is British / English.
2. England is only one of the four nations of the British Isles / Countries.
3. Today the differences between the four nations have blurred / disappeared.
4. The political unification of Britain was / was not achieved by mutual agreement.
5. These people support / don't support the country of their parents or grandparents rather than England in sporting contests.

3. Now read the text again and decide if the following statements are True or False. Make a note of the part of the text which helps you decide.

1. In writing and speaking that is not especially formal or informal, the name 'UK' is used.
2. At one time the four nations were not distinct from each other in almost every aspect of life.
3. The present queen of the country is universally known as 'Elizabeth the Second'.
4. English people do not regard the Scottish, the Welsh or the Irish as 'foreigners'.
5. It should always be remembered that England does not make up the whole of the UK.

TEXT 2

Text for discussion:

Read the following text through quickly and decide what you think are the other available titles for every of three main parts.

The importance of not being English

Northern Ireland

Nowhere has the sense of conflict with the English been stronger than in Northern Ireland, where the population is composed of Protestants and Catholics. The Protestants do not feel English, though some would call themselves British and almost all claim Ulster (as most Protestants prefer to call Northern Ireland) as an integral part of Britain. They are known as 'Unionists' or 'Loyalists' a more militant term implying support for a paramilitary group. The Catholic population feels more Irish than British and most, calling themselves Nationalists, would prefer to be more clearly separate from Britain, or at any rate with closer links with the Irish Republic. Some call themselves Republican, implying support for Sinn Fein (pronounced 'shin fayn') and the IRA (the Irish Republican Army). Today there are approximately 900,000 Protestants and 680,000

Catholics in Northern Ireland. There are 3.5 million Irish south of the border, in the Republic, with whom many Catholics feel an affinity. Both communities, and the people of the Republic, have felt great frustration with British policy.

England's involvement with Ireland has been an unhappy one. English adventurers colonised parts of Ireland over 800 years ago. In the sixteenth century England brought Ireland under systematic rule. When England became Protestant, Ireland did not. In order to strengthen its hold on the most rebellious part, Ulster, London encouraged English and Scottish Protestant settlers, or 'Planters'. These took the best land and soon outnumbered the indigenous people of Ulster. The English deliberately tried to destroy Irish language, culture and Catholicism.

Inspired by the American and French Revolutions, the Irish began their, long struggle to be free. The majority of Protestants, particularly in Ulster, reacted to this struggle by forming the Orange Order, a solidarity association of 'lodges', or branches. The title refers to the Dutch Protestant, William of Orange, who seized the English throne from the Catholic King James II in 1688, and who defeated an Irish rebellion at the River Boyne in 1690.

The Irish finally forced England to concede independence in 1921. Ulster's Protestants warned that they would fight rather than be part of a Catholic-dominated Irish state. Partly to avoid that risk, but also because of its strong political and economic interests in Ulster, London persuaded the Irish to accept independence with the exception of six of the nine counties of historic Ulster where the Protestants were 67 per cent of the population.

London allowed the Northern Irish to govern themselves, wishing to benefit economically while being rid of the 'Irish problem'. It was a profoundly short-sighted arrangement, and neglected the fact that every generation since the Planters had seen outbreaks of sectarian violence. Northern Ireland became controlled by a Protestant oligarchy. Every election for the Northern Irish government at Stormont was about Ulster's future - whether it should remain part of the United Kingdom. The Protestants excluded the Catholic minority from political power, gerrymandering the electoral system when necessary. They also excluded them from local government and exercised gross discrimination in housing and employment. London ignored these glaring abuses of basic rights.

With the decline of shipbuilding in the early 1960s, Northern Ireland became one of the poorest parts of the United Kingdom. The poverty was not equally shared. Catholics were significantly disadvantaged and their anger grew. In the autumn of 1968 Catholics, supported by many Protestants, demonstrated on the streets, demanding civil rights, basically fair participation in political and economic life. Ulster Loyalists confronted them and the police, who were overwhelmingly Protestant, failed to act impartially or keep order. The violence soon resulted in deaths, some caused by the police, but most by paramilitary groups that rapidly grew in each community. The IRA, a small fringe group in 1968, sought to persuade Catholics that the issue was not civil rights but national self-determination. Many Loyalists were suspicious that Britain intended to weaken the Protestant hold on the Province and formed two main groups, the Ulster Defence Association and the Ulster Volunteer Force. (see *picture 3*)



Picture 3. A loyalist mural invokes Ulster's past defenders.

Another crucial factor has been the high level of unemployment, affecting the Catholic community most. In 1976 London legislated against employment discrimination. Within the public sector (apart from the security forces) Catholics are now proportionately represented. The police force remains 92 per cent Protestant. But in the private sector the situation reflects continuing disparity. Progress can be slow. Unemployment remains about twice as high among Catholics than among Protestants. In 1995 unemployment stood at 18 per cent for Catholics and 8 per cent for Protestants, but male unemployment revealed a sharper disparity, 23 per cent for Catholics and 9 per cent for Protestants.

Unemployment in both communities has a political as well as an economic consequence. Young men with few prospects, little education and peer group or gender pressure are the easiest to recruit into paramilitary forces. In the words of one young man, 'In riots, people say you're a coward if you wouldn't throw a brick.' Throwing stones or bricks becomes meaningful in terms of male identity. Some start as early as eight or nine years old.

July each year has become a moment of tension, when the 'lodges' (or local branches) of the Orange Order organise parades to celebrate the Battle of the Boyne. Some of these marches go through Catholic areas. What Orangemen see as a celebration of community identity, Catholics see as an unacceptable humiliation and provocation. They expect government to protect their rights as a minority, but the Orangemen assert their right to march 'the Queen's highway', as a form of freedom of assembly. If thwarted, they can create enough disorder to bring Northern Ireland to a virtual standstill. That is what they did in 1996 when the government tried to reroute the first march of the season to avoid the Catholic Garvaghy Road at Drumcree, near Portadown. The government gave way. Nationalists were furious. In 1997, having failed to obtain any form of compromise from community leaders, the government again allowed the Drumcree march to go down the Garvaghy Road. It believed that, if frustrated, the Loyalists planned a wave of sectarian killings. This decision caused great Nationalist bitterness and rioting. The government used this anger to warn the Orange Order that it was

unable to police all its planned marches sufficiently, and that the Order risked unrestrained and unpoliced civil conflict. This held severe political, economic and social consequences, and the Orange Order decided to reroute its more contentious marches. Growing recognition of the great damage these marches inflict on the whole community may lead to their modification. It was a senior Orangeman who admitted of the Loyalist rioting in the 1996 Drumcree crisis, 'For 26 years the IRA bombed us and for 26 years the people were defiant and stood up to them. But today the country's being ruined: we're going to lose tourists; our businesses are failing; it's bad for everybody. It is worse than all the damage the IRA has done.' (David McKittrick, *The Independent*). However, until the Orange marchers and Catholic residents can agree mutually acceptable ground rules for marches, July each year will remain a very tense time. In July 1998 the Orangemen were forbidden to march down the Garvaghy Road at Drumcree. A major trial of strength, clearly also about the new political settlement, seemed inevitable. However, the savage killing of three young Catholic children living in a Protestant area caused a major crisis of confidence within Orange ranks, and many deserted them, this crisis may prove decisive in undermining the long-term influence of the Orange Order.

While political leaders struggle to find a mutually acceptable and durable political settlement, another dynamic is at work. Less than a decade ago the higher Catholic birth rate seemed offset by higher Catholic emigration, and any decisive demographic change seemed half a century away. That equation has radically changed, although at first this was unnoticed. In fact the Catholic population has increased from 34 per cent in 1969 to approximately 43 per cent by the early 1990s. The Catholic population is also significantly younger, and 52 per cent of under-16-year-olds in the Province are now Catholic. Meanwhile the Protestant community is ageing, with over 30 per cent of them over the age of 70. Part of this accelerating change has been caused by the relatively recent flight of the young Protestant middle class to England, for both work and also for university study, after which few return. Queen's University once had a substantial Protestant majority. Today, however, Catholics form 65 per cent of the student body.

The shifting balance is already evident from election results. Sixty per cent of the territory of the Province, virtually all the territory west of Lough Neagh, is now under Nationalist (SDLP or SF) control. Protestants tend to move eastwards. But they have also lost local government control of two traditional bastions of Unionism, Londonderry (Derry) and Belfast. Protestants have a sense of diminishing political power. This may partly explain Loyalist sectarian killings and also the assertiveness of the Orange Order marches, a form of defiance as electoral power slowly drains away.

Today Catholics feel more confident. In the words of the 1993 Opsahl Report, published by an international commission which investigated the feelings and aspirations of the ordinary people of Northern Ireland, 'The Catholic political

future is vibrant, active, with a dynamic civil society - they have, for example, a profusion of political groups. The Protestant community, by comparison, is apolitical. Outside the public life of the churches, civil society barely exists.' Indeed, the Protestant community faces critical weakness. It is used to civic passivity because political and institutional authority has always been mainly Protestant. The shifting electoral balance demands strong Unionist leadership, if it is to secure the Unionists' best interests in any settlement. Yet they lack an outstanding political leader, lack a vision beyond clinging onto membership of the United Kingdom, and lack unity. The Unionist parties are distracted from these crucial issues by inter-party rivalry. David Trimble may prove able to provide the leadership the Unionists have previously lacked.

If the Catholic population was openly determined upon integration with the Republic, Unionists might have greater grounds for fear. However, it is uncertain what the Catholic majority really wants. Catholic opinion has always been a spectrum from those concerned solely with civil rights to those wanting union with the Republic. This ambivalence about a desirable outcome also exists in the Republic. It is also true that the decline in influence of the Catholic Church in the Republic makes the idea of a united Ireland seem less threatening to most Protestants than it did. Thus, while remaining part of the United Kingdom for the time being, an increasing degree of Irishness is more acceptable than it once was. Given the way in which the European Union has developed, the way forward may be for a political entity independent of, but in close relationship with, both the United Kingdom and also the Republic.

Wales

Wales was conquered by the English 700 years ago and incorporated into a single political and administrative system with England in the sixteenth century. However, the Welsh sense of difference survived. A cultural self-consciousness was awakened in the mid-nineteenth century, through a revival of literature in Welsh and the literary and music festivals, eisteddfods, for which Wales became famous. It was also awakened through higher education which emphasised Welsh identity. From 1900 onwards identity was also expressed through rugby football, which became a sport of national importance.

Welsh society in the nineteenth century was divided between the dominant Anglo-Welsh culture of the rich land-owning class, and the culture of the ordinary, mainly Welsh-speaking people. Dissent from the Anglo-Welsh and from mainstream English life has remained a vital aspect of Welsh identity. Until the Second World War its religious expression was through 'non-conformism', attendance at Methodist and Baptist chapels rather than at Anglican churches. Political dissent was expressed through support for Labour.

There had been a short-lived autonomy campaign in the 1890s which shrank, and did not revive again until the 1960s, when there was growing disappointment

with both the Conservatives and Labour on account of the recession which hit the industrial region in South Wales. Between 1957 and 1959 23 Welsh coal mines stopped production. The closure of mines led to a collapse of valley communities. In the words of one Welsh historian: 'The neighbourliness of old communities gave way to the alien impersonality of housing estates or commuter suburbs. Much of the vital culture of the Welsh heartland disappeared with them.' One veteran nationalist wrote in 1968, 'We Welsh are not just being denied self-expression as a nation today ... we are fighting in the last ditch for our very identity.'

The London government responded by delegating some administrative responsibility, with the appointment in 1964 of a Secretary of State for Wales. It also used the Royal Family as a symbol of British unity. In 1969 Prince Charles was invested as Prince of Wales at a ceremony in Caernarfon Castle. The ceremony had been invented in 1911 to channel Welsh national feeling back to loyalty to the United Kingdom. The castle, however, had been built by the English King Edward I in his conquest of the Welsh, and inside its walls he had proclaimed his own baby son Prince of Wales in 1284. Not surprisingly, some Welsh found the ceremony symbolic of English rule, not Welsh identity.

The following year Plaid Cymru, the Welsh National Party founded in 1925, attracted 11 per cent of the Welsh vote and won three parliamentary seats in the 1974 election. Yet when asked by referendum in 1979 whether they wanted the proposed legislative devolution and the creation of a Welsh Assembly in Cardiff, the Welsh overwhelmingly rejected it - only 11.8 per cent were for it, and 46.5 per cent against. Plaid Cymru lost credibility and declined in popularity as a result. However, during the 1980s closures in both the coal and steel industries resumed and deep alienation from the Conservative government took place. In 1987 the Conservatives won only eight out of the 38 Welsh seats and appointed Englishmen as Welsh Secretaries of State. They lost two more seats in 1992, and lost the remaining six in 1997. Plaid Cymru won and kept four seats, but remained confined to the rural periphery.

Labour dominates Wales politically. As part of its strategy for devolved government, in 1997 Labour held a referendum in Wales on the proposed establishment of an elected Welsh assembly. This time the vote was in favour, but only by a fraction and only 50 per cent of the electorate bothered to vote. Nevertheless, the assembly will be formed. It will have 40 directly elected members using the traditional FPTP system, and 20 additional members elected by PR. The Welsh Assembly, to be located in Cardiff, will not be a law-making body, but will enjoy the powers already delegated by Westminster to the Secretary of State for Wales.

There are only 2.9 million Welsh, and they have struggled to maintain their identity in the second half of the twentieth century. They have had to do this not only against the political might of London but also the erosion of Welsh culture through English radio and television. Take, for example, the use of the Welsh

language. At the end of the nineteenth century over 50 per cent still spoke Welsh as their first language. Since then the decline has been dramatic:

Speakers of Welsh as a first language

1911	44 per cent
1931	37 per cent
1951	28 per cent
1971	20 per cent
1991	19 per cent

Because of fears that the language might disappear completely, Welsh language study has become compulsory in Welsh schools, and there is now Welsh medium radio and television. As a result 19 per cent still use Welsh, mainly in the north west and mid-Wales and many more over a wide area now understand it. The survival of the Welsh language is the most notable way in which the Welsh keep their special identity.

The cultural divide between Anglo-Welsh and Welsh Wales a century ago has been replaced by new divides:

1. 'Welsh-speaking Wales', those parts of western Wales which still retain the Welsh language as a living culture. It is only in Welsh-speaking Wales that Plaid Cymru candidates have been elected to Westminster.
2. 'Radical Wales', the southern industrial valleys of Wales, where Welsh is no longer spoken but Welsh identity is still expressed through dissent, by voting for Labour within the wider context of Britain.
3. 'English Wales', the far south-west tip (Pembrokeshire) and a broad belt of Wales adjacent to England, which have been heavily settled by the English, and where about half the population no longer think of themselves as Welsh. It is only in English Wales that the Conservative Party remains a significant political force.

In the 1997 referendum, 'Welsh-speaking' and 'Radical' Wales tended to vote for devolution while 'English' Wales voted mainly against. In that sense Wales remains a divided country.

Welsh nationalism remains essentially a cultural movement. The language, eisteddfods, male-voice choirs, chapel attendance and rugby football were all traditional symbols of Welsh identity and pride. Yet apart from the language and rugby football the rest have either disappeared or are in rapid decline, leaving high unemployment and low morale in much of southern Wales. Yet Wales attracts more foreign investment than most other parts of Britain, and is largely free of English class consciousness. In the words of Martin Skipton of the newspaper *Wales on Sunday*: 'People in Wales don't have the same sort of deference you might get among the middle classes in, say, south-east England toward people regarded as higher up the scale.' Yet a new elite has emerged, a highly educated Welsh-speaking elite, nicknamed the Crachach ('upstarts' or 'snobs') who are resented by many Welsh who speak only English. In the words of the Welsh film maker Karl Francis, 'the Welsh-speaking mafia exclude English-speaking Welsh

people: they don't want us in Wales. The Welsh-speaking mafia regards the culture heritage as being its own property.' However, for both groups it is difficult to resist the waves of homogeneous culture from England and further afield, and many Welsh have a sense of retreat.

Scotland

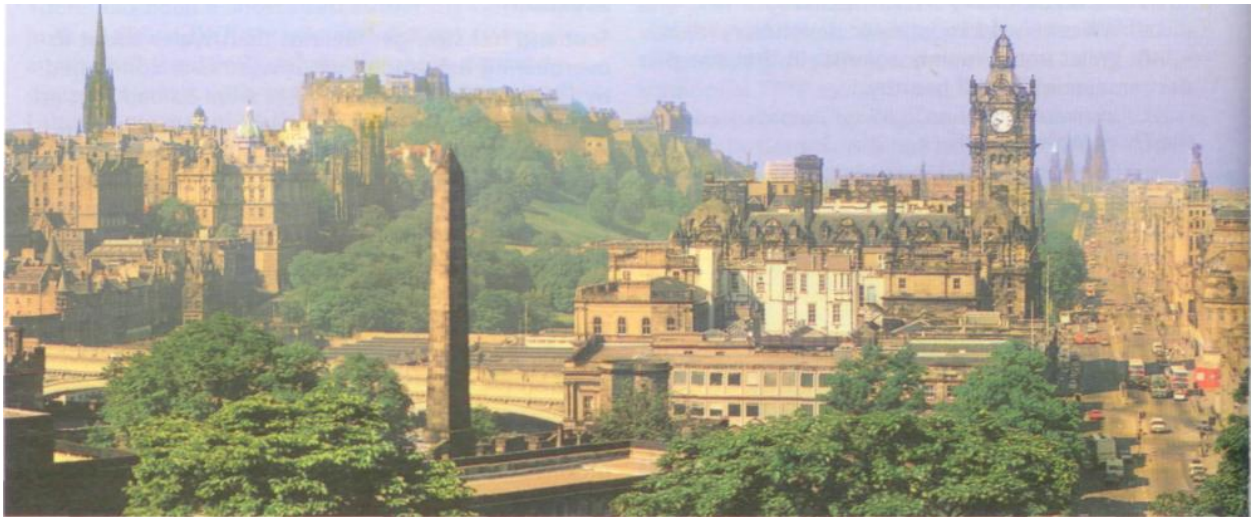
Scotland has stronger feelings than Wales about its overbearing neighbour, yet it was never conquered by England. But English attacks were so bad that in 1320 the Scottish clergy declared: 'For as long as even one hundred of us remain alive, we shall never consent to subject ourselves to the dominion of the English.' Scottish nationalism was born. In fact, when the English Queen Elizabeth I died childless in 1603, the Scottish king James VI inherited the English throne. London was politically and economically more powerful than Edinburgh, and he and his successors ruled from London, effectively becoming English. In 1707 England and Scotland were formally united as Great Britain. The government in London insisted on this union for political reasons, and the Scots could not refuse for economic reasons. The Scottish Parliament was suspended, and the new Parliament of Great Britain assembled in Westminster.

After 1707 Scotland kept three distinctive institutions: its own legal and education systems and its own church, or 'Kirk', the Presbyterian Church of Scotland. All three are important symbols of national identity. In part they reflect Scotland's closer relationship to continental Europe. Scottish law is discussed in Chapter 4. The Scottish universities were closer to the European model, and still have a four- rather than three-year undergraduate course.

However, the most important of Scotland's distinctive institutions is the Kirk, which is closely identified with national feeling. This is because of its role in national life since the Reformation in the late sixteenth century. The Kirk at that time insisted that all adults in Scotland should be literate, so as to read the Bible themselves. This laid the foundations for strong educational and democratic traditions. The head of the Kirk, or Moderator, is still elected by the General Assembly each year. The Kirk never allowed the monarch to interfere in the life of the Kirk or to become its head as happened in England. Even in a secular age, the Kirk remains an important focus for national feeling. Approximately 20 per cent of Scots are practising members of the Church of Scotland.

The thought of England unites Scotland, but the image of Scotland as one nation can be misleading. Scotland 'has no unity except upon the map' the nineteenth-century Scottish novelist, Robert Louis Stevenson, wrote. 'Two languages, many dialects, innumerable forms of piety, and countless local patriotisms and prejudices,' he continued, 'part us among ourselves more widely than the extreme east and west of that great continent of America.'

Even allowing for some exaggeration, there indeed is a big cultural as well as geographical divide between the Lowlands and Highlands. The Lowlanders are thought of as quiet, moral and hard-working, the Highlanders as exuberant, carefree and unreliable. If there is some truth in this, it is to be seen in another division, that between Scotland's two great and rival cities, Edinburgh and Glasgow. In the words of one writer, 'For all her elegance and lofty-mindedness, Edinburgh is a reserved, plain, cautious and thrifty city. (see *picture 4*) She is more Lowland, in these respects, than Highland. Glasgow is ... an expansive, extravagant, romantic, less tight-laced city.' Edinburgh thrives as Scotland's capital, as the venue for the world-famous festival, and because it is the most handsome city in Britain. Glasgow, despite its exuberant spirit, struggles with high unemployment, poor health and low morale.



Picture 4. Scotland's capital, Edinburgh, is one of the most beautiful cities of Europe.

As in Wales, there has long been resentment at the concentration of political power in London and the sense of economic neglect. To offset this feeling, the government in Whitehall established a Scottish Office in 1885. From 1945 education, health, agriculture, roads, transport, planning, housing and public order were handled within the Scottish Office. From 1945 onwards the Scots saw the giants of their economy, particularly shipbuilding on the River Clyde, disappear. In 1913 Clyde shipbuilding employed 60,000 men. Today the industry barely exists. The closure of Scottish shipyards, coal mines and steel mills, and the consequent high levels of unemployment in Scotland are, in the popular view closely associated with London government. By 1979 60 per cent of Scots in manufacturing were working for English, American, Japanese or other foreign-owned enterprises. The Scots were especially hard hit by Thatcher's economic restructuring. In the years 1979-81 alone, there was a fall of 11 per cent in

Scottish industrial production, and a 20 per cent drop in manufacturing jobs. Two steel mills, Gartcosh and Ravenscraig, the 'flagships' of Scottish industry, were closed in 1986 and 1992 with a loss of at least 11,000 jobs. For Scots these closures symbolised the attitude of an ultra-English Conservative government.

During the 1980s and the 1990s Scotland's economy changed and partly revived. Scotland could boast one of the largest electronics industry concentrations in Western Europe. Whisky distilleries in the north east accounted for 20 per cent of Scottish manufactured exports. There are 100,000 jobs in North Sea oil. Edinburgh has become the fourth financial centre of Europe, with important fund management and insurance services.

Yet the new service industries could not help those who had worked in the old heavy industries. One consequence of the 'progressive loss of morale' has been a worse state of health in Scotland and a higher rate of heart disease, smoking, alcohol and drug abuse than elsewhere in Britain. Another consequence was emigration which has been a long-standing feature. Throughout the nineteenth century the Highland chiefs allowed the communal clan lands to be cleared of people. Between 1871 and 1901 half a million Scots emigrated. Other highlanders moved to Glasgow. (see *picture 5*) Emigration still offsets natural increase. The population has remained static at 5.1 million in the decade 1986-96.



Picture 5. Glasgow is Scotland business and manufacturing capital.

The Highlands, the greater part of Scotland, are now largely deserted. Once the Highlands were stripped of their inhabitants, the great landowners set aside their estates for sport: the hunting of deer. Most great landowners do not live on their estates, and many neither live in Scotland nor are Scottish. The reality of day-to-day life in the Highlands stands in cruel contrast with the tourist picture of jolly kilted Highlanders playing bagpipes or participating in Highland Games.

By the 1960s there were fewer than 300,000 people living in this large area which, in the words of one Highland land expert, John McEwen, 'suits absentee landlordism admirably'. Since the 1960s the Highland population has grown by

about 50,000 people. The question of who owns Scotland has become a national issue. McEwen found that no official land register had been made in Scotland since the nineteenth century. In 1977, at the age of 90 and after much obstruction by landowners, he published his research which showed that of Scotland's 19 million acres (7.6 million hectares) only 2.5 million acres belonged to the state, and only 4.5 million acres were in private estates of 1,000 acres or less. Two-thirds of all Scotland, 12 million acres, was in private estates of over 1,000 acres in size. Half of Scotland is still owned by only 500 people, some of whom are actually Scots, but most of whom are absentee land lords.

Dismay at the progressive integration with England has led to growing cultural expression. Gaelic, still spoken by about 70,000 people chiefly in the Hebrides, has attracted the interest of a growing number of students. Between 1986 and 1996 Gaelic-medium schools increased from two to 50. Ironically the Gaelic revival is partly the result of enthusiastic incoming English families. Pride in the Scots dialect of English is also expressed in the translation of the Bible into Broad Scots - part of a resurgence of Scottish identity against the authority wielded by Standard English. Scottish political feeling has also grown since 1945. In the late 1960s the Scottish National Party (SNP) began to attract serious support, and in 1974 won 11 of Scotland's 71 seats. Yet in 1979 Scotland failed to vote decisively for devolution, 32.9 per cent in favour (less than the required 40 per cent), 30.8 per cent against. Margaret Thatcher and John Major were consistently hostile to devolution, unlike their predecessor, Edward Heath, who had proposed devolution in 1968. The facts speak for themselves. In 1955 Conservatives won 36 of the then 71 Scottish seats in the Commons, the last time they had a Scottish majority. In the 1979 election the Conservatives won 23 seats, but declined dramatically thereafter. In 1987 they kept only 10, compared with Labour's 50 Scottish seats. Scots deeply resented being governed by a party unable to attract even one-sixth of the Scottish vote. In 1989 50 Scottish Labour and Liberal Democrat MPs, leading churchmen and other community leaders met, significantly, in the Church of Scotland's General Assembly buildings in Edinburgh. Here they unanimously signed a 'Claim of Right' to a parliament of their own. In 1997 the Conservatives constitutional view may prove as influential as the English one of the Crown in Parliament.

Tasks for additional work

1. Read the text again and find out the key-sentences illustrating the main points in each part of the extract. Compare your answers with your group-mates.
2. Discuss in small groups what we may conclude from the text.

2.4. Города Великобритании

TEXT 1

Read the text and decide what makes London a different city.

London

London was not *built* as a city in the same way as Paris or New York. It began life as a Roman fortification at a place where it was possible to cross the River Thames. A wall was built around the town for defence, but during the long period of peace which followed the Norman Conquest, people built outside the walls. This building continued over the years, especially to the west of the city. In 1665 there was a terrible plague in London, so many people left the city and escaped to the villages in the surrounding countryside. In 1666 the Great Fire of London ended the plague, but it also destroyed much of the city. Although people returned to live in the rebuilt city after the plague and the Great Fire, there were never again so many Londoners living in the city centre.

These days not many people live in the city centre, but London has spread further outwards into the country, including surrounding villages. Today the metropolis of Greater London covers some 610 square miles (1580 sq. km.) and the suburbs of London continue even beyond this area. Some people even commute over 100 miles (over 150 km.) every day to work in London, while living far away from the city in the country or in other towns.

The gradual growth of the city helps to explain the fact that London does not have just one centre, it has a number of centres, each with a distinct character: the financial and business centre called the City (spelt with a capital 'C'), the shopping and entertainment centre in the West End, the government centre in Westminster. Places like Highgate and Hampstead have kept their village-like character - they have their own newspapers and the famous Hampstead Heath is a reminder of country origins.

Exercises:

1. Read the text again and write out the main points about London.
2. Make sure you know the pronunciation of the following words:
Paris, the Norman Conquest, plague, the metropolis, Hampstead Heath.
3. Answer the questions:
 - What do you know about the origins of the capital city of your country?
 - Many people in Britain do not like living in city centres and so they commute to work from the suburbs and the surrounding countryside. What are the advantages and disadvantages of this?

Read the texts about two parts of London, the East End and the West End, and decide what the main difference between them is.

TEXT 2

The East End

The East End grew with the spread of industries to the east of the City, and the growth of the port of London. It covers a wide area. A part like Bethnal Green, which was once a country village, is quite different from the areas down by the river, where there are many wharfs and warehouses.

It is also one of those areas of London where people from abroad have come to find work. For centuries foreigners have made London their home. Some have had to leave their country for religious or political reasons. Others have wanted to find a better life. Some brought new skills and started new industries. These days, many Jews and Bengalis live in the East End, and within a small area you can see a mosque, a church and a synagogue! The East End is especially famous as the centre of the clothing industry (or 'rag-trade') in London.

The East End markets are famous throughout the world. Petticoat Lane market takes place every Sunday morning and has become one of the sights of London. Street-salesmen promise that the goods are of the highest quality and much cheaper than those you can buy in the West End! 'Come on darlin'... amazin' bargain ... you ain't seen nuffink like it!'

Traditionally someone born in the East End is known as a cockney although this name is now given to anyone who speaks like a Londoner. Typically they change certain vowel sounds so that the sound in 'late' becomes more like that in 'light'. In addition they don't use the usual 't' sound of standard English but stop the air in their throat. (Try saying 'bu'er' instead of 'butter'!) Like some foreign learners of English they seem to have a few problems with 'th' and use a T instead!

TEXT 3

The West End

The West End is the name given to the area of central London north from The Mall to Oxford Street. It includes Trafalgar Square, the main shopping areas of Oxford Street, Regent Street and Bond Street, and the entertainment centres of Soho, Piccadilly Circus, Leicester Square and Shaftesbury Avenue. Its name is associated with glamour and bright lights.

Trafalgar Square

Trafalgar Square was built early in the last century to commemorate the Battle of Trafalgar. Admiral Lord Nelson's statue stands on top of a column in the

middle of Trafalgar Square. The square makes a good place for people to meet - coaches pick up parties of visitors, marchers unite for protest meetings, and at Christmas time carol singers gather round a huge Christmas tree which is sent to Britain from Norway every year. Behind Nelson's Column is the National Gallery, an art gallery in which you can find many old masters.

Shopping

Most of London's big department stores are in Oxford Street and Regent Street. They are always crowded, but at sale times, in January and July, there are so many people that it is difficult to move and it is usually safer to go in the direction of the majority! These days, it is often difficult to distinguish the goods in one large store from those in another.

If you are looking for something 'different' (but cannot afford the prices of Bond Street) it is certainly worth going to New Covent Garden. This used to be England's biggest fruit and vegetable market, but a few years ago, the market was moved to a new site on the other side of the River Thames. The old market, now called 'New Covent Garden', was restored and converted into a shopping centre. There are now more than forty shops of many different kinds, and there are several places to eat and drink. The opening hours are different from most other shops: they open at 10 a.m. and close at 8 p.m., whereas most shops open from 9a.m. to 5.30p.m. As well as shopping, there is entertainment with lunch-time theatre groups and classical, jazz, folk and pop music.

Entertainment

Piccadilly Circus is the centre of night life in the West End. It is usually top of everyone's list of things to see in London, because it is so well known. It is actually quite small, and most people are rather disappointed when they see it for the first time because they had imagined it would be much bigger! To the north of Piccadilly Circus is Soho, which has been the foreign quarter of London since the 17th century. Now it has restaurants offering food from a variety of different countries, especially Chinese and Italian ones, as well as 'adult' entertainment.

London is famous for its live theatre, and there are over thirty theatres within a square mile. Naturally there is a great variety of shows to choose from: 'whodunnits', opera, musicals, drama, comedies and so on. If you want to know what is on in London, the best place to look is in a newspaper.

Exercises:

1. Read the texts above carefully and write out the main points about the East End and the West End. Compare your notes in group.
2. Make sure you know the pronunciation of the following words:
Bethnal Green, wharfs, warehouses, Jews, Bengalis, a mosque, a church, a synagogue, Petticoat Lane, a Londoner, Piccadilly Circus, Leicester Square,

Shaftesbury Avenue, Trafalgar Square, Covent Garden, the River Thames, folk, Soho, Chinese and Italian, variety.

3. Speak about the East End and the West End using the words from exercise 3.

4. Discuss in groups what you know about the central part of your own city (town) and about the growth of its suburbs.

Discuss in groups what you know about Big Ben, the Houses of Parliament, Guy Fawkes, Westminster Abbey. Read the texts and check if you are right.

TEXT 4

Westminster

Every day when people in the UK and overseas switch on their radio to listen to BBC radio news, they can hear one of the most famous sounds in London. On the hour, the bells of Big Ben ring loud and clear. Many people think that Big Ben is the clock or the whole tower next to the Houses of Parliament. In fact, it is the largest of the five bells at the top of the tower. Parliament itself is in Westminster, a part of London that has long been connected with royalty and government.

King Edward the Confessor first decided to build a palace beside the River Thames in the 11th century. His successors extended the palace and made it their main residence. Gradually, Westminster became the centre of government and justice. At first, Parliament was organized by the monarch as a way of governing the country. He or she called different groups together: the Lords represented the Church and aristocracy whilst the Commons were used by the rich land-owners to put forward the views and interests of their own town or village. Over the centuries power gradually passed from the monarch to Parliament but not without a few problems!

During the reign of James I, for example, Guy Fawkes tried to blow up Parliament

James' son, Charles I, thought that he could rule the country without the help of Parliament, but these dreams led to his death. He tried to make parliament do what he wanted, but after years of quarrelling he finally lost his patience. One day he burst into the House of Commons with several hundred men and tried to arrest its leaders. They had already escaped. But the struggle between king and parliament was not finished and the country was thrown into a civil war, which only stopped when Charles was finally beheaded in 1649.

The Queen still opens the new session of Parliament each autumn by reading 'the Queen's Speech', which describes the main policies of the Government. However, this takes place in the House of Lords and she is not allowed to enter the House of Commons. This tradition goes back to the time of Charles I, more than

three hundred years ago, and reminds everybody that the monarch must not try to govern the country.

The Houses of Parliament were rebuilt in 1835 after being completely destroyed by fire. In addition, the House of Commons needed more repairs after being bombed during the Second World War. Parliament is in session every afternoon and evening except Friday and the weekend, and if you are lucky you might be able to watch a debate from the public gallery.

Westminster Abbey

Opposite the Houses of Parliament stands Westminster Abbey. A church has stood here since Saxon times when, in the year 750 AD, a Benedictine Abbey was founded. It was known as West Monastery (Westminster), from its position 3 miles (five kilometres) west of London's centre. From Norman times British monarchs have been crowned there and since the 13th century they have been buried there. Many other famous people are also buried in Westminster Abbey including statesmen, musicians and writers. In Poet's Corner can be found statues and the tombs of poets such as T. S. Eliot.

Exercises:

1. Make sure you know the pronunciation of the words: King Edward the Confessor, justice, aristocracy, whilst, a Benedictine Abbey, buried, musicians, tombs.

2. Ask questions for these answers.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Big Ben | 7. The Commons. |
| 2. A Bell. | 8. Guy Fawkes. |
| 3. Royalty and government. | 9. Charles I. |
| 4. A palace beside the River Thames. | 10. 1649. |
| 5. A way of governing the country. | 11. The Queen's Speech. |
| 6. The Lords. | 12. 1835. |

3. Find additional information about Westminster Abbey and discuss it in groups.

TEXT 5

Read the text and say what the street is famous for.

Whitehall

The street called Whitehall stretches from Parliament Square to Trafalgar Square. Just as Westminster or the Palace of Westminster frequently stands for the Houses of Parliament, so Whitehall is often used as a name for the Civil Service.

Downing Street, which is a small side street off Whitehall, is the home of the Prime Minister, who lives at number ten. Next door at number eleven lives the Chancellor of the Exchequer, who is responsible for financial planning and the British economy. Just around the corner in Whitehall itself are all the important ministries: the Foreign Office, the Ministry of Defence, the Home Office and the Treasury.

In the middle of Whitehall is the Cenotaph where the Queen lays the first wreath of poppies on Remembrance Day. On that day each year the people of Britain remember their dead from the two world wars of this century by wearing a red paper poppy.

Exercises:

1. Read the text carefully and decide which ministers and ministries are responsible for the following areas of government.

Income tax	Law and order
The army	Nuclear weapons
Prisons	Immigration
Government	The police spending

2. Make sure you know the pronunciation of the words: the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Treasury, the Cenotaph.

3. Find Russian equivalents for the following notions in English: the Civil Service, the Prime Minister, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Foreign Office, the Ministry of Defence, the Home Office, the Treasury, the Cenotaph.

TEXT 6

Read the text. Discuss in groups what new things about these parts of London you have learned.

Kensington and Knightsbridge

If you live in this area, the rent on your flat is probably very high - it is an exclusive part of London where you can find many foreign embassies, large,

glamorous hotels, and the department store that is the symbol of expensive and high-class living - Harrods.

People say you can buy anything in Harrods, including wild animals - they even have a zoo which will sell you lion cubs as well as more common pets such as dogs, cats or parrots. Harrods succeeded in supplying one customer with a baby elephant, although it had to be ordered specially!

Harrods is not the only attraction here; there is the Albert Hall, where there is a festival of popular classical music concerts every summer known as 'the Proms'. Sporting events such as tennis tournaments and boxing matches are also held there.

Museums

Three of London's most interesting museums - the Victoria and Albert, the Science Museum and the Natural History Museum - are also in this area. The last, as its name suggests, has exhibits of birds, animals and reptiles as well as life-size reconstructions of prehistoric animals. The Victoria and Albert was founded with the aim of improving design in British manufacturing, but over the years it has expanded to include things from almost every place and period, including costumes from the theatre, and paintings. Finally there is the Science Museum, which is always crowded and is certainly the noisiest museum in London. It covers every aspect of science and technology, and the collections are constantly being moved round to make room for new acquisitions. They have inventions that did not become popular, such as the steam bicycle of 1912, and technological landmarks like the Cody biplane - the first aircraft to fly in England in 1912. In many of the rooms there are machines and computers that visitors can work themselves

Exercises:

1. Read the texts carefully and prepare a cross-word puzzle on Kensington and Knightsbridge.
2. Exchange your cross-words with you group-mates and do the cross-words.

2.5. Экономика Великобритании. Промышленность и сельское хозяйство, сфера обслуживания, банковский сектор. Сити. Роль профсоюзов

TEXT 1

The economic problems

Little more than a century ago, Britain was 'the workshop of the world'. It had as many merchant ships as the rest of the world put together and it led the world in most manufacturing industries. This did not last long. By 1885 one analysis reported, "We have come to occupy a position in which we are no longer progressing, but even falling back.... We find other nations able to compete with us to such an extent as we have never before experienced." Early in the twentieth century Britain was overtaken economically by the United States and Germany. After two world wars and the rapid loss of its empire, Britain found it increasingly difficult to maintain its position even in Europe.

Britain struggled to find a balance between government intervention in the economy and an almost completely free-market economy such as existed in the United States. Neither system seemed to fit Britain's needs. The former seemed compromised between two different objectives: planned economic prosperity and the means of ensuring full employment, while the latter promised greater economic prosperity at the cost of poverty and unemployment for the less able in society. Neither Labour nor the Conservatives doubted the need to find a system that suited Britain's needs, but neither seemed able to break from the consensus based on Keynesian economics.

People seemed complacent about Britain's decline, reluctant to make the painful adjustments that might be necessary to reverse it. Prosperity increased during the late 1950s and in the 1960s, diverting attention from Britain's decline relative to its main competitors. In 1973 the Conservative Prime Minister Edward Heath warned, "The alternative to expansion is not, as some occasionally seem to suppose, an England of quiet market towns linked only by steam trains puffing slowly and peacefully through green meadows. The alternative is slums, dangerous roads, old factories, cramped schools, stunted lives." But in the years of worldwide recession, 1974-79, Britain seemed unable to improve its performance.

By the mid 1970s both Labour and Conservative economists were beginning to recognise the need to move away from Keynesian economics, based upon stimulating demand by injecting money into the economy. But, as described in the Introduction, it was the Conservatives who decided to break with the old economic formula completely. Returning to power in 1979, they were determined to lower taxes as an incentive to individuals and businesses to increase productivity; to leave the labour force to regulate itself either by pricing itself out of employment or by working within the amount of money employers could afford; and, finally, to

limit government spending levels and use money supply (the amount of money in circulation at any one time) as a way of controlling inflation. As Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher argued in the Commons, "If our objective is to have a prosperous and expanding economy, we must recognise that high public spending, as a proportion of GNP [gross national product], very quickly kills growth. ... We have to remember that governments have no money at all. Every penny they take is from the productive sector of the economy in order to transfer it to the unproductive part of it." She had a point: between 1961 and 1975 employment outside industry increased by over 40 per cent relative to employment in industry.

During the 1980s the Conservatives put their new ideas into practice. Income tax was reduced from a basic rate of 33 per cent to 25 per cent. (For higher income groups the reduction was greater, at the top rate from 83 per cent to 40 per cent.) This did not lead to any loss in revenue, since at the lower rates fewer people tried to avoid tax. At the same time, however, the government doubled Value Added Tax (VAT) on goods and services to 15 per cent.

The most notable success of 'Thatcherism' was the privatisation of previously wholly or partly government-owned enterprises. Indeed, other countries, for example Canada, France, Italy, Japan, Malaysia and West Germany, followed the British example. The government believed that privatisation would increase efficiency, reduce government borrowing, increase economic freedom, and encourage wide share ownership. By 1990 20 per cent of the adult population were share owners, a higher proportion than in any other Western industrialised country.

Answer the question. What economic problems according to the text did Britain face?

TEXT 2

Read the text about the City and say in brief what the main characteristics of this part of London are.

The City

Tradition

The City does not refer to the whole of central London but rather to a small area east of the centre, which includes the site of the original Roman town. It is an area with a long and exciting history, and it is proud of its independence and traditional role as a centre of trade and commerce. This tradition is focused on the City's Lord Mayor, whose official residence is the Mansion House. Once a year, in November, the Lord Mayor's Show takes place. This is a colourful street parade in which the newly elected Lord Mayor travels in a golden coach, which is over 200

years old. In the evening a splendid meal is served in the Guildhall, to which the Prime Minister and members of the Government are invited.

Commerce and finance

The City of London is one of the major banking centres of the world and you can find the banks of many nations in the famous Threadneedle Street and the surrounding area. Here, too, you will find the Bank of England. Nearby is the Stock Exchange which is like a busy market, except that here not food but shares in commercial companies are bought and sold. A little further along in Leadenhall Street is Lloyds, the most famous insurance company in the world.

During weekdays in the City you can see the City gents with their bowler hats, pinstriped suits and rolled umbrellas. This is the 'uniform' only of those men involved in banking and business in the City, and outside this small area you will probably not see anyone dressed like this.

The Old Bailey

The centre of the country's judicial system is to be found in the western part of the City. The Old Bailey houses many courts and some of Britain's most famous murder trials have taken place here. Many solicitors and barristers have their offices (called 'chambers') nearby, particularly in the area known as the 'Temple'. All criminal trials in Britain are held before a judge and a jury consisting of twelve ordinary people. It is the jury, not the judge, who decides if a person is guilty or not. An accused person is considered innocent until proved guilty. All defendants are entitled to legal representation, which will be provided free if they cannot pay for it.

Exercises:

1. Make sure you know how to pronounce the following words:

commerce, focused, the City's Lord Mayor, official residence, the Mansion House, the Guildhall, Threadneedle Street, is the Stock Exchange, Leadenhall Street, bowler hats, murder trials, solicitors, barristers, guilty, entitled, legal.

2. Read the text in detail and write out key information. Compare your notes with a group-mate.

3. Discuss in groups what information about the City was absolutely new for you.

TEXT 3

The structure of trade and industry

The 'modernization' of business and industry happened later in Britain than it did in most other European countries. It was not until the 1960s that large corporations started to dominate and that a 'management class', trained at business school, began to emerge. Even after that time, many companies still preferred to recruit their managers from people who had 'worked their way up' through the company ranks and/or who were personally known to the directors. Only in the 1980s did graduate business qualifications become the norm for newly-hired managers.

British industry performed poorly during the decades following the Second World War (some people blamed this on the above characteristics). In contrast, British agriculture was very successful. In this industry, large scale organization (i.e. big farms) had been more common in Britain than in other European countries for quite a long time.

As in all European countries, the economic system in Britain is a mixture of private and public enterprise. Exactly how much of the country's economy is controlled by the state has fluctuated a great deal in the last fifty years and has been the subject of continual political debate. From 194s until 1980 the general trend was for the state to have more and more control. Various industries became nationalized (in other words, owned by the government), especially those concerned with the production and distribution of energy. So too did the various forms of transport and communication services (as well, of course, as the provision of education, social welfare and health care). By 1980, 'pure' capitalism probably formed a smaller part of the economy than in any other country in western Europe.

From 1980 the trend started going in the other direction. A major part of the philosophy of the Conservative government of the 1980s was to let 'market forces' rule (which meant restricting the freedom of business as little as possible) and to turn state-owned companies into companies owned by individuals (who became shareholders). This approach was a major part of the thinking of Thatcherism (Margaret Thatcher was Prime Minister at that time). Between 1980 and 1994 a large number of companies were privatized (or 'denationalized'). That is, they were sold off by the government. By 1988 there were more shareholders in the country than there were members of unions. In addition, local government authorities were encouraged to 'contract out' their responsibility for services to commercial organizations.

The privatization of services which western people now regard as essential has necessitated the creation of various public 'watchdog' organizations with regulatory powers over the industries which they monitor. For example, Offtel monitors the activities of the privatized telephone industry, and OffWat monitors the privatized water companies.

Task. Find more information and make a report about Thatcherism, and reforms that took place during that period.

2.6. Социально-этническая структура, классовая система. Социальная мобильность и иммиграция. Положение этнических меньшинств

Reading

Read the texts and say if the British are a homogeneous society. Decide what makes the British feel different from each other.

TEXT 1

A sense of place

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, to give it its formal title, is a highly centralised and unitary state, and its main component, England, has been so for almost a thousand years, longer than any other European country. As a political entity, however, Britain (as the United Kingdom is loosely called) is less than 300 years old, being the state which emerged from the union of the ancient kingdoms of Scotland and England in 1707.

It is widely assumed that the British are a relatively homogeneous society with a strong sense of identity, but it is an assumption that requires considerable qualification. Even after 300 years the terms 'British' and 'Britain' which are used for official purposes, can also seem very artificial. In his famous *Dictionary of Modern English Usage*, first published in 1926, Fowler wrote:

"It must be remembered that no Englishman, or perhaps no Scotsman, calls himself a Briton without a sneaking sense of the ludicrous, or hears himself referred to as a BRITISHER without squirming. How should an Englishman utter the words *Great Britain* with the glow of emotion that for him goes with *England*? His Sovereign may be Her *Britannic* Majesty to outsiders, but to him is Queen of *England*."

For centuries it has been the idea of England (or Scotland), rather than of Britain, which has been charged with patriotic emotion. The idea of England is invoked at times of national crisis, for example at the Battle of Trafalgar in 1805, when Admiral Lord Nelson's famous order to the British fleet read, "England expects that every man will do his duty." In 1939 during Parliament's emergency debate on the eve of war, one Member of Parliament (MP) called across the

chamber to another who was rising to speak: "Come on, Arthur, speak for England."

One should not be surprised, either, that Fowler wrote these words under 'England'. If you look up 'Britain', 'British' and 'Briton' you will find 'See *England*.' Most people call Britain 'England', and the British 'English', as if Wales, Northern Ireland and Scotland were merely outer parts of England. Nothing, it should be said, infuriates a Scot more than ignorantly to be called English, or for all Britain to be referred to as England. Many Welsh and Northern Irish feel similarly about their identity.

While Britain is instinctively thought of by many as 'England', so also the idea of England evokes images of the Queen, Parliament, Westminster Abbey, the Tower of London and the soft landscape of the southern counties of England. This is not so surprising since almost one quarter of the British people live within 25 miles of London's Trafalgar Square. But it also reveals that England as well as Britain is dominated by the south, and particularly the south east.

Yet these symbols can be misleading. The United Kingdom is a land of great diversity, partly in its landscape, but more importantly in the human sphere. There are four territorial divisions, Scotland, England, Wales and Northern Ireland (or Ulster). They all carry a special sense of identity which is strongly affected by the tension between their own distinctive history and tradition and centralised government from London. Yet even England has local identities, which tend to be stronger the further one travels from the south east. In Cornwall, in the far south west, there is still a sense of Celtic identity, and a romantic affinity with their cousins, the Celtic people of Brittany in north-west France, persists. In the north of England, in the words of one MP, people are "warm, friendly, quick-tempered and insular". Communities such as those in the mining villages of Durham are tightly knit, with a strong sense of loyalty. The people of Yorkshire and Lancashire, too, have a strong sense of community identity that can hardly be found in the south. As one moves closer to London, community loyalties are weaker and society is both more homogeneous and yet also more individualistic, the characteristics of a highly integrated modern society.

Each shire or 'county', the administrative division of England created over a thousand years ago, still commands its own local loyalties, still expressed in that most English of games, cricket. Even in the most homogeneous part of Britain, the 'Home Counties' (Middlesex, Hertfordshire, Essex, Kent, Surrey) around London, people can still feel strongly about their county identity. The sense of local difference may be partly a matter of history, but it is also to do with the subtle changes in landscape, architecture or even the way English is spoken, from one county to another.

England, unlike the largely mountainous countries of Wales and Scotland, is mainly lowland, except for six major hilly regions: the Pennines, called the 'backbone of England' dividing the north-west

part of England from the north-east; the scenic Lake District in the north west; the Yorkshire Dales, running to the east coast of Yorkshire; the moorlands of Cornwall and Devon; and the border areas with Scotland and Wales respectively. Elsewhere the ranges of hills are relatively low, while the East Midlands and East Anglia are notably flat and featureless. In Scotland and Wales the greater part of the population is concentrated in the more lowland areas, particularly the area between Glasgow and Edinburgh, and in the east and south-east parts of Wales.

TEXT 2

Core and periphery

There is another way of looking at the country. Throughout almost all of Britain's history, the centre of economic and political power, and therefore the largest population concentration, has been in the south of the country. The only partial exception was in the two centuries following Britain's industrial revolution, approximately 1775-1975, when the availability of water and coal led to the growth of large industrial towns and cities in the north and the north and West Midlands. But as Britain now leaves its industrial age behind, it is possible to recognise the older dominance of the south - a result of climate, agricultural wealth, and today the ease of communication with the wider world.

It is possible to draw a series of arcs outwards from London, marking an inner and outer 'core' to the country, and an inner and outer 'periphery' (opposite). The pattern may seem crude, but it roughly describes the measure of authority and prosperity radiating from London since the days of Roman Britain. The periphery, particularly Scotland, Wales, and the north of England, has always resented the power of the south and periodically has challenged it. Today, in political terms, these are the areas of Labour Party strength, a rejection of the Conservative political culture of the south.

Looking at Britain, region by region, one can see the continuing evidence of this core/periphery theory. Overall population density reveals the enduring concentration in the south east where over one third of Britain's population lives, and also in the Midlands and north as a result of the industrial age.

At the outset of the 1990s Britain's total population was just over 57 million, but although it is barely increasing, the demographic pattern is changing. A continuing movement of population away from the periphery, towards the core, is evident when looking at the balance of population during the years 1981-2001 (above). There is a steady stream of young people, mainly aged between 18 and 35, who move southwards in order to improve their economic prospects. Between

1981 and 1987, Scotland, the north and north west all lost 1.3 per cent of their populations. What the map does not show is that there is a drift also from Cornwall in the far south west and from western Wales towards the core of Britain.

The north-south divide

Another way of assessing this core/periphery theory is to look at living standards and expectations in recent years. This shows very clearly that the south east, south, south west, East Anglia and the East Midlands do very much better than the peripheral areas. Over a century ago, the English novelist Mrs Gaskell wrote a book entitled *North and South*, about a heroine from a soft southern village forced to move to the fictitious county of Darkshire, who confessed "a detestation for all she had ever heard of the north of England, the manufacturers, the people, the wild and bleak country". Mutual prejudice between a complacent population in the south and a proud but aggrieved one in the north persists. Precisely where the dividing line between north and south runs is a matter of opinion. In the early 1980s the line was conventionally drawn from the Severn estuary (on the south Wales/England border) across to the Wash (on the north-west side of East Anglia). By 1990 the line more popularly ran from the Severn to the Humber.

The divide goes well beyond mere prejudice. A sharp contrast undeniably exists between the conditions of life in the north and in the south, which is likely to continue well beyond the end of the century. A survey of comparative prosperity in the 280 towns of Britain, published in 1990, shows the divide very clearly. The top town, Horsham, had an unemployment rate of 2 per cent. Greenock, at the bottom, suffered 17 per cent unemployment, with the prospect that it would probably get worse in the 1990s.

The divide is noticeable in other ways, too, for example in health. In the words of one official report in 1987: "Striking disparities in health can still be observed. Death rates were highest in Scotland, followed by the north and north-west regions of England, and were lowest in the south east of England and East Anglia." It may be added that on average people die younger in the north and the population generally is more subject to heart disease and cancer. People in the north tend to smoke and drink more heavily than in the south. The Scots, for example, spend about one third more on smoking than the national average.

Such things are symptomatic of the greater stress and harder social conditions of life in the north. This is most clearly seen in employment rates. Overall, during the period 1979-1987, there was a small, 1.5 per cent, fall in the employed labour force. The national figure, however, masks the regional variations. Employment expansion in the south east was 4.3 per cent, in the south west 7.3 per cent and in East Anglia 18.2 per cent. Everywhere else there was contraction, of which the worst were Scotland - 8 per cent, the north - 9.6 per cent,

the north-west - 12.1 per cent, and Wales - 12.6 per cent. As a result, during this period over 90 per cent of the job losses had been north of the Severn-Wash divide.

Inevitably, the existence of greater employment opportunities encouraged many in the north to follow the advice of one government minister in the early 1980s to "get on your bike" and seek work in the south. On the whole those most successful in their search were also the most employable, the best qualified. Although this may relieve short-term unemployment, it also drains depressed areas of their most talented people. Take for example Stranraer, a small town on the south-west tip of Scotland. It has no higher education facility in the locality. Those who go on to any form of further education after secondary school are unlikely to return to the Stranraer area. In other words, the whole district is annually stripped of its brightest young people. Without their talent it is difficult to see how the depressed periphery can be revived.

Single people have much greater ease in moving away in search of work than married people. This is because of the sharp difference in the price of housing. In 1990, for example, houses in the south cost on average twice as much as their equivalent in the north. This means that many married people living in the north cannot afford to move south even if they are offered a job. In any case a higher proportion of people in the north and in Scotland live in council (publicly owned) housing than elsewhere. If they move they

become homeless, joining a long waiting list for council accommodation in the south. It should be noted that as the first large generation of home owners begins to die, people living in the south east are three times as likely to inherit a home as those in any other region. Thus, even in this respect, capital resources are stacked in favour of the south east.

There are plenty of exceptions to the view of prosperity in the south and of depression in the north, where there are many firms making a great success in unpromising circumstances. The largest shopping centre in Europe in 1990 was the Metrocentre in Gateshead, Newcastle, the achievement of a proud Northerner, John Hall. It is a symbol of the regional regeneration and rebirth of provincial pride that he and many other northern businessmen believe in. A world leader in the manufacture of glass, Pilkington's, resisted strong pressure in the 1980s to move south from its traditional home in St Helens, outside Liverpool. It is not only Northerners who believe in the north. Leading Japanese firms have chosen periphery areas for major investment, for example Toyota in Wales, and Nissan in Sunderland. There are also plenty of prosperous localities within an overall depressed region. Leeds, for example, boasted the fastest growing economy in England in 1989, with 50 major projects generating 12,000 jobs. The showpiece of Leeds' revival is its old shopping arcades, now revamped and renamed the Victoria Quarter.

However, there are not enough successes to reverse the overall trend. The impression of a more impoverished north persists. In the mid 1980s, for example, the north east of England remained in the bottom twelve of the European Community's 131 regions in terms of wealth. The north west in 1983 had the highest death rate in England, the highest proportion of divorced men and the lowest proportion of 16-year-olds remaining in school, reflecting profound social and economic problems. Indeed, it is estimated that by the end of the century the north west will have lost 222,000 jobs, representing a fall in its share of national employment from 10.1 per cent to 8.8 per cent. Unemployment in the north generally is likely to remain three times higher than in the south until the end of the century. People will continue to 'vote with their feet' by moving to more prosperous areas. The government itself has estimated that during the years 1986-2001, the number of households in the south, south east, south west, East Anglia and East Midlands will increase by 15 per cent, and by only 6 per cent in the remaining areas.

The theory that businesses will relocate in the north because of cheaper labour and site costs is not borne out by experience. In practice businesses fear they will have difficulties in recruiting qualified people, a reasonable expectation if almost half of all 16-year-olds in the north leave school without seeking further training. There is great reluctance among most employees working in the south to move to the north. If their business relocates they are more likely to resign than move. A survey in 1988 indicated that among over 100 chief executives of companies in the south, over 90 per cent said their senior staff would resign rather than move north. Businesses prefer to seek a cheap site somewhere else in the south. Because Britain's financial sector is concentrated in London, businesses in the north find it difficult to obtain capital. Many northern businessmen would argue there is an urgent need for decentralisation, to encourage local financial centres to encourage local business. In the meantime, of those companies in the north which chose to relocate, over half have tended to move to the south.

It is questionable whether even the south really benefits from the growing regional imbalance, since in return for what may prove economic prosperity the environment is degraded by very high population concentrations, heavy air and road traffic, and urban development. It is doubtful whether this imbalance will change unless government returns to the policy generally applied up to 1979 of providing incentives to economic growth in the under-developed areas, and discouragements to the continued concentration in the south.

TEXT 3

City and market town

Eighty per cent of the British people live in towns or cities of 100,000 inhabitants or more. Yet most of these town dwellers would prefer to live in the

countryside if it were possible. This has a lot to do with a national state of mind. Nevertheless, people are moving out of larger cities, some going to the countryside (discussed below), and others to smaller towns. In the 1960s London had a population of 8.5 million. By 1981 it had fallen by 20 per cent to only 6.7 million. Liverpool, in the north west, has suffered urban decline compounded by its location. In 1937 its population was 867,000. It was still 745,000 in 1961, but since then has fallen to 469,000, and will have only half its 1937 population by 2001. Several impoverished inner city areas, including Liverpool, experienced major riots during the 1980s.

In fact there has been a flight from the great cities ever since the middle of the nineteenth century, when industrialisation made them such unpleasant places to live and when the invention of the railway made it possible to commute to the city from more pleasant areas. Take London, for example. Until the First World War most of the middle classes and a smaller 'service' class moved to London's new suburbs which reached into the countryside enclosing a large number of villages within a 25-mile radius.

During the middle years of the twentieth century, the 1920s to the 1970s, mainly professional middle-class people started to move out beyond 'suburbia' into the towns and villages of the Home Counties. They could either afford a motor car or the rail fares, and so could live in what were still quiet country towns. Places like Tunbridge Wells, Sevenoaks, Reigate and Redhill, Guildford and Dorking all acquired a new population of professional people who commuted daily to work in the City. Much of the countryside between these towns and Greater London was designated a protected 'Green Belt'. Many other cities did the same, in order to protect their hinterland from uncontrolled urban sprawl.

In the late 1970s and 1980s the pressure to move out of London and its suburbs intensified. There were two main reasons for this. The most important was the steep rise in house prices in the London area. The other reason for moving was to escape a marked decline in the quality of life in Britain's larger cities. In London, for example, traffic congestion and pollution made life in the 1980s much less attractive than it had been in the London of the 1960s. Since house prices in the Home Counties had risen to virtually the same level as those in London itself, people began to look further afield. For those prepared to spend up to two hours travelling to work by rail each day, it was possible to buy a larger house perhaps 160 miles or more from London, in areas around Brighton, Salisbury, Bristol, Oxford, Northampton, Cambridge, Peterborough and Norwich. Similar, though less pronounced, effects have become evident around other large cities, particularly the more depressed ones. Finally there was another smaller but growing category of people who, thanks to the new information technology, no longer needed to work in central offices. Two London boroughs, for example, 'outposted' their computer and finance departments in 1990, one to Sheffield, where rents were much lower, and another to Barnstaple, a market town in the picturesque county of

Devon. An increasing number of people were even able to work from home, linked by computer and fax facilities to their employer. Possibly up to half the people working in London will be working from home by the end of the century. If this comes about, it must be expected that more people will leave London.

The danger for Britain's large cities is that they will have impoverished inner areas, in which only the poorest live, while everyone who is able to will try to live on the edge of the city or outside it, shopping by car at the new large shopping centres sited on city ring roads. The growth of such large shopping centres spells danger for the old-fashioned high streets of city suburbs. If people find it more attractive to shop by car, they will find that high street shops will close and local economic decline will set in, just as it has already done in some inner city areas. Thus, unplanned free-market growth may strike at the roots of that local community coherence which still strongly exists in many city suburbs, particularly those based on old villages long since swallowed up by city growth.

The attraction of the new 'boom' towns, usually with populations under 150,000, is the higher quality of life, good transport links and diversified economy. Most of them are in the southern half of England, for example Banbury, Bury St Edmunds, Cambridge, Colchester, Huntingdon, Milton Keynes, Reading, Swindon, Warwick and Worcester. Exeter represents the most western of these boom towns. One or two are significantly further north, for example Warrington and Hanogate, and Wrexham in north Wales. Wrexham's fortunes changed when two large Japanese electronics companies, Sharp and Brother, both established factories there, attracted by low labour costs and improved road access to Manchester. It is hard to exaggerate the psychological effect of Japanese investment on local prosperity, for their confidence draws in British investors who would otherwise have had little confidence in a small market town in a low income area. Warrington suffered heavily in the early 1980s with the loss of jobs in steel and aluminium production giving it a high unemployment rate. By 1990 unemployment was below the national average thanks mainly to diversification into non-manual or 'white-collar' jobs, and a shrinkage in the proportion of manual, or 'blue-collar' jobs, and most important of all, new confidence resulting from local successes.

Yet, it is still within the south east that the greatest small town growth is taking place. The population of Milton Keynes grew by 41 per cent between 1981 and 1988. In terms of economic growth Horsham, in West Sussex, overtook nearby Crawley in 1990 as one of the fastest growing towns in the country. Access to London by road and rail is easy, and Gatwick airport is nearby. Traditionally a quiet market town, Horsham has become a busy and prosperous shopping centre for the area, with a large commuter population but also with a high level of business in the town itself. Its largest employer is a large insurance company. As happens in most growing towns, the emphasis is on service industry rather than

manufacturing and the job vacancies are for those with skills and educational qualifications. Few unskilled workers are wanted in these boom towns.

Another major area of development is across Cambridge and East Anglia. Access to London, to the excellent scientific and technical resources of Cambridge, and to low-cost industrial areas and housing has made this area particularly attractive to high technology and service industries. As a result East Anglia, the most sparsely populated part of England, but with excellent seafreight facilities for Europe, had remarkable population growth during the 1980s, at a rate of 1 per cent per annum.

TEXT 4

Town and country

It is obvious that, especially in the south and south east, the pressure created by the growth of towns along the M4 Corridor and other development areas, and by the increasing departure of people from the cities, has been particularly felt in the countryside. In fact, it would be true to say that almost all of rural England has been affected. Large numbers of mainly middle-class families have bought cottages in the country, either to live in or to use as holiday homes.

This migration into the countryside has changed the nature of village life. Many villages today have a substantial proportion of commuters, people whose home is in the village but who earn their living elsewhere. This is in complete contrast with only half a century ago, when villages were much smaller and were populated by those who made their living out of the country, primarily farmers and farm labourers. In Hampshire, for example, there is not a single village left which is not almost entirely commuter-based, its inhabitants travelling to work anywhere from the Solent to the south, to Avon (Bath-Bristol) to the west, or the M4 Corridor towns or London to the north and north east.

This migration has transformed occupancy. Pretty old cottages have been bought at higher prices than most local people can afford. The local poor have been steadily squeezed out, particularly during the past twenty years, into low-cost or publicly owned rented housing on the edge of the village.

Village geography has also changed. The pressure for housing has led to intensive infilling and expansion onto open land in and around villages. The county of Berkshire, for example, has doubled its housing stock since 1960. Reading, Wokingham and Bracknell have all expanded so that they almost form one single conurbation. Pressure has been particularly acute around London, with successive governments trying to infringe the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act which protects the Green Belt. According to government estimates, 700,000 new homes are needed in the south east during the 1990s, of which 570,000 homes will be outside London. The pressure to expand onto 'green-field' sites, in other

words the countryside, will be very great. So far the pressures have been largely resisted. Between 1954 and 1981 the built-on area of the south east rose from 11.9 per cent to 15.7 per cent. It may reach 17 per cent by the end of the century. In 1990 there were at least sixty new towns and villages proposed in different parts of rural England.

The pressure on rural housing is an area of tension between long-established country people and middle-class newcomers. Local people often resent the way they have been displaced into cheap housing on the edge of the village. It is the newly arrived commuting middle classes who are generally more anxious to protect their picturesque village from further housing development. Most villages threatened with nearby new housing developments quickly organise campaigns to oppose their implementation. However, truly local people sometimes regard commuters as hypocritical, since they do not have to earn a livelihood locally.

The pressure of people is also felt through tourism, in areas which receive heavy use during the summer. Two notable areas in danger are the Lake District, first made famous in the nineteenth century by the great romantic poet William Wordsworth, and the Peak District in the Pennine Hills, running between Lancashire and Yorkshire. National parks in Britain are already significantly different from those in most of Europe, because they are already man-modified landscapes. Many of the landscapes now run the risk of development as leisure facilities. By 1990 there were a dozen major leisure complexes in the Lake District. The more people use or interfere with these national parks the more they will be degraded. Britain faces a major crisis in tourist damage both in its cities and countryside. The sheer numbers of people wishing to visit Westminster Abbey or to walk the Pennine Way are literally wearing these facilities away.

The countryside probably also faces more systematic exploitation than in any other country in Western Europe. The English countryside has changed more in the past 40 years than in the previous 400 years. The main threat comes from farming. The pressure to improve yields, a feature of government policy since the food shortages of the Second World War, has had a damaging effect on the countryside and the structure of farming. This pressure has led to increased capitalisation and mechanisation, and this in turn has led to the disappearance of smaller, less profitable farms in favour of much larger enterprises. The concentration of farmland in a few wealthy hands is a particularly British phenomenon. The average farm in Britain is much larger than in any other West European country.

Intensive large-scale farming has changed the traditional landscape in many parts of England. In order to make maximum use of mechanisation many farmers have torn up thousands of the hedgerows that characterised the English landscape. Well over 100,000 miles of hedges - enough to encircle the world four times - have been removed since 1947. Some East Anglian fields are now 500 acres in size. Half the country's ancient lowland woods have been cleared for farmland since

1945. In addition the intensive use of chemical fertilisers has led to substantial pollution of rivers, and the destruction of fish and other wildlife. In the late 1980s there was growing concern at the degradation of the countryside. A vigorous nature conservation lobby, rivalled possibly only by that in Holland, may be able to halt the progressive degradation of the rural environment.

Modern agricultural methods have also led to a sharp decline in the farming population. In 1946 there were 739,000 full-time agricultural workers. Over 600,000 of these have disappeared since then. One Cambridgeshire farmer, for example, today employs only six people where his father employed eighty-five people, yet manages to produce twice as much. In the mid 1980s overproduction became a problem, and farmers are now encouraged to produce less food per acre. However, it is unlikely that farmers will return to previous methods, either by restoring hedgerows or by reducing the use of chemical fertilisers.

TEXT 5

Rich and poor

What happened to over half a million farm labourers? Many sought other unskilled or semiskilled work, some in nearby towns. Because of their very low income many found it almost impossible to move to town. Others have found it impossible to find work. The countryside remains an area of high unemployment, and one quarter of all rural households live in comparative poverty. The desire of the rural poor for better economic prospects, even at the cost of new housing estates in the village, contrasts sharply with the views of newly arrived middle-class people who do not want picturesque villages spoilt.

However, rural poverty is often forgotten because it is overshadowed by the far larger problem of urban poverty. Although there is a higher proportion of both rural and urban poor on the periphery, particularly in the depressed areas of the north, the most casual tourist in London can easily find signs of desperate poverty among the homeless who sleep rough in the centre of the city. Most of Britain's poor live in the run-down areas which exist in almost every large town or city. The most notorious of these are in London, Liverpool, Birmingham and Bristol, but only because it was in these cities that the anger of poverty exploded in riots during the 1980s.

During the 1980s the gap between the richest and poorest in Britain grew significantly after over thirty years of relative stability. This was a direct result of economic policy and of changes to the tax system which intentionally rewarded the richest most, on the assumption that the highest income earners were the most productive members of society. In 1989 it was estimated that the richest 200 people in Britain owned assets equivalent to 8 per cent of the gross national product, including 7 per cent of the land.

In contrast, during the period from 1979 to 1987 the number of people living on less than half the national average income doubled, from roughly one tenth to one fifth of the whole population. In fact poverty seems to have increased during the 1980s more rapidly than elsewhere in the European Community. However, while the number of poor people undoubtedly increased during the 1980s, it is also true that the remaining 80 per cent of the population were probably somewhat better off than they had been in 1979. The real difficulty was that the gap between rich and poor grew. The richer a family was, the more they tended to benefit during the 1980s, and the poorer they were, the less they benefited. This trend seemed set to continue into the 1990s.

Britain's diversity is, therefore, a good deal more complex than merely the variety of its landscape, or quaint cultures like Scottish bagpipes, Welsh harps and northern brass bands. During the closing years of the twentieth century the physical landscape is changing rapidly as a result of economic and social change. Although these have been discussed in contrasting terms, north and south, town and country, rich and poor and so forth, it will be clear that these themes interact. It is not possible to look at the comparative prosperity of the south without considering its implications for the countryside, or for the decaying cores of its cities. Nor is it possible to consider, for example, the unfortunate impact of modern farming without seeing it in the context of a highly integrated modern society. In many respects the British people find themselves caught between their idealised view of Britain and its institutions and the less comfortable realities at the approach of the twenty-first century.

Exercises:

Reread the texts more carefully and answer the questions.

1. A sense of place: What is the difference in usage between the words 'British' and 'English'?
2. Core and periphery: Which is the 'core' area of Britain, and which is the 'periphery'? Give reasons why the core continues to be dominant.
3. The north-south divide: Which of these two images, core-periphery or north-south divide, do you think best describes the socio-economic differences in Britain? Explain your choice.
4. City and market town: Why have cities declined in population while towns and villages outside cities have increased? Is there a similar development in your country?
5. Sunrise and sunset areas: What does the author mean by sunrise and sunset areas? Find examples of each from the text.
6. Town and country: There is in Britain a popular desire to move into the countryside. What social and environmental problems does this movement cause?

7. Rich and poor: What happened to the gap between rich and poor during the 1980s, and what were the main causes?

Analysis and discussion

1. Which of the following statements is the best summary of all the above texts?

- a) Britain is a highly homogeneous country in which suggestions of a north-south divide, or of great disparity between rich and poor are exaggerated.
- b) Britain is a sharply divided society in which one is conscious of huge differences in culture and wealth.
- c) The idea that British society is homogeneous must be qualified by cultural, social and economic variations.
- d) Britain is a dynamic country with picturesque and charming regional variations.

2. List the ways in which the regions of Britain differ most clearly.

3. Find evidence in the text to support the following statements:

- a) During the 1980s there was an increasing proportion of the population that could be described as poor.
- b) The English countryside is suffering serious degradation.
- c) The economic boom in the 1980s took place mainly in the southern half of Britain.
- d) Business is very unwilling to relocate in the north.

4. Are there marked regional differences in your country? If so, are they similar to those in Britain? Are there other kinds of divisions in your country which do not apply in Britain?

2.7. Символика, геральдика Великобритании и её отдельных регионов

Pre-Reading activities. Discuss the following questions:

- 1. What are the most well-known symbols of nationality in your country? Is there a patron saint of your country?
- 2. Do you think it's possible to consider sport, national clothes, musical instruments, plants, colours etc. to be signs of national identity?
- 3. Have you ever heard about the Union Jack, Britannia or kilt? What do these words mean?

TEXT 1

Nowadays the UK is personified under the name Britannia. Britannia is the name that the Romans gave to their southern British province (which covered, approximately, the area of present-day England). It is also the name given to the female embodiment of Britain, always shown wearing a helmet and holding a trident (the symbol of power over the sea), hence the patriotic song which begins 'Rule Britannia, Britannia rule the waves'. The figure of Britannia has been on the reverse side of many British coins for more than 300 years.

The UK's national flag is the Union Jack. The red, white, and blue flag in which are combined the Crosses of St. George – the red upright cross on the white field (England), St. Andrew – the diagonal white cross on the blue field (Scotland), and St. Patrick - the red diagonal cross on the white field (Ireland). The name, the colours and the crosses symbolize the union of the united parts of the country. Initially the flag was called a jack only when it was flown at the bowsprit of British naval vessels. It was commonly called the Union Jack by the late 17th century, and that name became official in the late 19th century. The Union Jack is flown on land for government and military purposes, and at sea it serves as a flag for the Royal Navy. The general public uses it unofficially as a civil flag. Its width-to-length ratio is 1 to 2.

The Union Jack is the most important of all British flags and is flown by representatives of the United Kingdom all the world over. In certain authorized military, naval, royal, and other uses, the Union Jack may be incorporated into another flag. For example, it forms the canton of both the British Blue Ensign and the British Red Ensign. It is part of the flags of such Commonwealth nations as Australia, New Zealand, and Tuvalu, as well as of the U.S. state of Hawaii, the Australian states (New South Wales, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia), and three Canadian provinces (British Columbia, Manitoba, and Ontario).

The national anthem is the oldest in the world, established in 1745. On official occasions, only the first verse is usually sung, as follows:

God save our gracious Queen!
Long live our noble Queen!
God save the Queen!
Send her victorious,
Happy and glorious,
Long to reign over us,
God save the Queen!

There are also identifying symbols of the four nations.

The Red Rose became the emblem of England after the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485) which was the war of the dynasties for the English throne. All rivalry

between the Roses ended by the marriage of Henry 7 Tudor (the Lancastrian whose emblem was the Red Rose) with Princess Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward 4 (the Yorkist whose emblem was the White Rose). The Red Rose has since become the national emblem of England.

The thistle, the national emblem of Scotland, was chosen as such, because it saved the country from the enemy. This is what a legend says about it. In ancient times the Norsemen raided the east coast of Scotland intending to plunder it and settle in the country. The Scots took their stations behind the river Tay, the largest in Scotland. Not expecting the enemy before the next day and being weary and tired after a long march they pitched their camp and were resting. The Norsemen saw that no guards protected the camp so they crossed the river intending to take the Scots by surprise. On coming quite near they took off their shoes not to make noise. But one of the Norsemen stepped on a thistle and shrieked with pain. The alarm was given in the Scots camp and the Norsemen were put to flight. Scots, thankful for timely help, chose the thistle as their national emblem.

The leek or daffodil is Welshmen's national emblem. Welshmen all over the world celebrate (on March 1st) St. David's Day by wearing either leeks or daffodils. St. David is supposed to have lived for several years on bread and wild leeks, so the link between the leek and St. David is a strong one.

The daffodil is also closely associated with St. David's Day due to the belief that it flowers on that very day. It became an alternative to the leek as a Welsh emblem in the 20 century.

The shamrock, the national emblem of the Irish, is proudly worn on St. Patrick's Day, March 17. It is worn in memory of Ireland's patron saint, who when preaching the doctrine of the Trinity to the pagan Irish used the shamrock (a small white clover with three leaves on one stem) as an illustration of the mystery.

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What is the female embodiment of Britain?
2. What crosses does the Union Jack consist of? What do they symbolize?
3. When was the national anthem established?
4. What identifying symbols of the four nations do you know?
5. Why did Scots choose the thistle as their national emblem? Tell the legend.

Additional question.

Do you know which British part is not represented on the Union Jack? Why?

Exercise 2. Can you explain the essence and historical associations connected with the words and word combinations?

the Union Jack; anthem; Red Rose; thistle; leek; shamrock; Britannia.

Exercise 3. Translate the national anthem of Great Britain. Is there any difference between the main idea of the national anthem of Great Britain and your country?

TEXT 2

Other signs of national identity

The following are also associated by British people with one or more of the four nations.

Names

The prefix 'Mac' or 'Mc' in surnames (such as McCall, MacCarthy, MacDonald) is always either Scottish or Irish. Many people in Scotland have the name MacDonald or MacKenzie. 'Mac' means 'son' of and people with this name usually feel they belong to the same family or clan. Campbell or Cameron are other common surnames. The Gaelic word 'clann' means 'family' or 'descendants' and the great clans of the 16th and 17th centuries were indeed very similar to enormous families, ruled by powerful chiefs. Sometimes there were fierce battles between different clans but nowadays the MacDonalds and the MacKenzies, the Campbells and the Lindsays all live in peace with each other. It is possible to find people with these surnames in many English-speaking countries, and they all feel they share the same background. Common boys' names are Angus, Donald or Duncan, and girls' names are Morag, Fiona or Jean.

The prefix 'O' (as in O'Brien, O'Hara) is distinctly Irish. A very large number of surnames (for example, Davis, Evans, Jones, Lloyd, Morgan, Price, Rees, Williams) suggest Welsh origin (although many of these are found throughout England). The most common surname in both England and Scotland is actually 'Smith'.

First names can also be indicative. The Scottish form of 'John' is 'Ian' and its Irish form is 'Sean' (although all three names are common throughout Britain). There are also nicknames for Scottish, Irish and Welsh men. For example, an English, Welsh or Irish person might refer to and address a Scottish friend as 'Jock' or 'Jimmy' because the names Jimmy and Jock are so common.

Irishmen are called 'Paddy' or 'Mick' and Welshmen are known as 'Dai' or 'Taffy'. If the person is not a friend the nickname can sound rather insulting.

Clothes

The kilt, a skirt with a tartan pattern worn by men, is a very well-known symbol of Scottishness (though it is hardly ever worn in everyday life).

The wearing of tartans or coloured checks was common in the Highlands before the defeat by the English in 1745. Originally, the tartan was worn as a single piece of cloth, drawn in at the waist and thrown over the shoulders. The kilt did not become popular until the beginning of the 18th century.

Each clan has its own tartan and, since the first international gathering of the clans in 1972, many more people have become interested in traditional forms of Scottish dress. Tartans are now part of international fashion. However, many visitors to Scotland are keen to find out if they have historical connections with any particular clan so that they may proudly wear the correct tartan.

Musical instruments

The harp is an emblem of both Wales and Ireland. The bagpipes are regarded as distinctively Scottish (though a smaller type is also used in traditional Irish music).

Characteristics

There are certain stereotypes of national character which are well-known in Britain. For instance, the Irish are supposed to be great talkers, the Scots have a reputation for being careful with money, and the Welsh are renowned for their singing ability. These characteristics are, of course, only caricatures and are not reliable descriptions of individual people from these countries. Nevertheless, they indicate some slight differences in the value attached to certain kinds of behaviour in the countries concerned.

Some historical and poetic names

Albion is a word used in some poetic or rhetorical contexts to refer to England. It was the original Roman name for Britain. It may come from the Latin word *olbus*, meaning 'white'. The white chalk cliffs around Dover on the south coast are the first part of England to be seen when crossing the sea from the European mainland.

Briton is a word used in official contexts and in formal writing to describe a citizen of the United Kingdom. 'Ancient Britons' is the name given to the race of people who lived in England before and during the Roman occupation (AD 43-410). These are the ancestors of the present-day Welsh people.

Caledonia, Cambria and Hibernia were the Roman names for Scotland, Wales and Ireland respectively. The words are commonly used today in scholarly classifications (for example, the type of English used in Ireland is sometimes called 'Hiberno-English') and for the names of organizations (for example, the airline 'British Caledonian').

Erin is a poetic name for Ireland. 'The Emerald Isle' is another way of referring to Ireland, evoking the lush greenery of its countryside

Pomp, Pageantry and Ceremonies

No ceremony is more popular than the ancient and mysterious ceremony of Trooping the Colour. This splendid and colorful event in honour of the Sovereign's official birthday is held annually on the first or second Saturday in June.

The route from Buckingham Palace to Horse Guards Parade, behind Whitehall, is decorated with banners and flags and lined with thousands of spectators, eagerly waiting to see the Queen heading the procession, dressed in uniform and riding side-saddle on one of her favourite horses.

The troops, in full dress uniforms, are from the Household Cavalry and the Guards Division. Two separate mounted regiments make up the Corps of Household Cavalry; the Life Guards originating from the time of King Charles I, who wear scarlet tunics with white plumed helmets, and the Blues and Royals (formerly the Royal Horse Guards) with blue tunics and red plumed helmets, who were a regiment during the Cromwellian period. These regiments share the honour of providing a personal bodyguard for the Sovereign on all state occasions.

Five separate regiments comprise the Guards Division, all of whom wear scarlet tunics and bearskins: the Grenadiers (1656); the Coldstream (1650); the Scots Guards (1642); the Irish Guards (1900) and youngest regiment, the Welsh Guards (1915). The Guards also perform guard duties at Buckingham Palace, St. James's Palace and Clarence House.

The sheer mass of dazzling colour the music of the mounted bands, the precision marching and counter-marching, are truly an experience never to be forgotten.

A national passion

Sport probably plays a more important part in people's lives in Britain than it does in most other countries. Britain was the first country to organise sport as a national activity. For a very large number, and this is especially true for men, it is their main form of entertainment. Millions take part in some kind of sport at least once a week. Many millions more are regular spectators and follow one or more sports. There are hours of televised sport each week. Every newspaper, national or local, quality or popular, devotes several pages entirely to sport.

The British are only rarely the best in the world at particular sports in modern times. However, they are one of the best in the world in a much larger number of other sports than any other country (British individualism at work again). It should be noted that hundreds of different sports are played in Britain, each with its own small but enthusiastic following. Some of these may not be seen as a sport at all by many people. For most people with large gardens, for example, croquet is just an agreeable social pastime for a sunny afternoon. But to a few, it is a deadly serious competition. The same is true of other games such as indoor bowling, darts or snooker. Even board games, the kind you buy in a toy shop, have their national champions. Think of any pastime, however trivial, which involves some element of competition and, somewhere in Britain, there is probably a 'national association' for it which organizes contests.

The British are so fond of competition that they even introduce it into gardening. Many people indulge in an informal rivalry with their neighbours as to

who can grow the better flowers or vegetables. But the rivalry is sometimes formalized. Through the country, there are competitions in which gardeners enter their cabbages, leeks, onions, carrots or whatever in the hope that they will be judged 'the best'. There is a similar situation with animals. There are hundreds of dog and cat shows throughout the country at which owners hope that their pet will win a prize.

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions:

1. What are the most common British first names and surnames?
2. What are the original Scottish clothes?
3. What are the Irish, the Scots and the Welsh well-known for?
4. Call some of the historical and poetic names of Great Britain. What do they mean?
5. What is the most popular ceremony in England?
6. How many separate regiments do comprise the Guards Division?
7. What do you think is a national passion of Great Britain?
8. What differs sport in Britain from other countries?
9. What do the British compete in?

Exercise 2. Choose the correct word(s) to complete each sentence.

1. 'Mac' means 'son' / 'daughter' of and people with this name usually feel they belong to the same family or clan.
2. Irishmen / Welshmen are called 'Paddy' or 'Mick'.
3. Tartans/ kilts are now part of international fashion.
4. The bagpipes are regarded as distinctively Scottish / Irish.
5. The Welsh / the Scottish are renowned for their singing ability.
6. Caledonia, Cambria and Hibernia were the Roman / Italian names for Scotland, Wales and Ireland respectively.
7. The Life Guards originating from the time of King Charles I, who wear scarlet tunics with white / black plumed helmets.
8. Every newspaper, national or local, quality or popular, devotes several / no pages entirely to sport.
9. For most people with large gardens, for example, croquet is just an agreeable social pastime for a sunny / rainy afternoon.
10. There are hundreds of dog and cat / horse and cow shows throughout the country at which owners hope that their pet will win a prize.

Exercise 3. Translate the following into English using the words and phrases from the text.

1. Приставка «Mac» или «Mc» в фамилии всегда означает принадлежность шотландской фамилии.

2. У каждого народа существуют свои прозвища, например Ваня у русских, Пэдди у ирландцев.
3. Стереотипы национального характера, которые есть в каждой стране, не всегда означают, что всех жителей данной страны можно охарактеризовать подобным образом.
4. Процедура смены караула всегда очень зрелищна и привлекательна.
5. Спортивные соревнования – это не обязательно бег или прыжки, но также борьба за то, чтобы вырастить самый большой кабачок или томат.

Глава 3. История. Внешняя и внутренняя политика Великобритании (Модуль 2)

3.1. История страны. Образование Соединённого Королевства, роль церкви

TEXT 1

The birth of the nation state

The century of Tudor rule (1485-1603) is often thought of as a most glorious period in English history. Henry VII built the foundations of a wealthy nation state and a powerful monarchy. His son, Henry VIII, kept a magnificent court, and made the Church in England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. Finally, his daughter Elizabeth brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain, the greatest European power of the time.

Henry VIII and the Reformation

Henry VIII was quite unlike his father. He was cruel, wasteful with money, and interested in pleasing himself. He wanted to become an important influence in European politics. But much had happened in Europe since England had given up its efforts to defeat France in the Hundred Years War. France was now more powerful than England, and Spain was even more powerful, because it was united with the Holy Roman Empire (which included much of central Europe). Henry VIII wanted England to hold the balance of power between these two giants. He first unsuccessfully allied himself with Spain, and when he was not rewarded he changed sides. When friendship with France did not bring him anything, Henry started talking again to Charles V of Spain.

Henry's failure to gain an important position in European politics was a bitter disappointment. He spent so much on maintaining a magnificent court, and on wars from which England had little to gain, that his father's carefully saved money was soon gone. Gold and silver from newly discovered America added to economic inflation. In this serious financial crisis, Henry needed money. One way of doing this was by reducing the amount of silver used in coins. But although this gave Henry immediate profits, it rapidly led to a rise in prices. It was therefore a damaging policy, and the English coinage was reduced to a seventh of its value within twenty-five years.

Henry VIII was always looking for new sources of money. His father had become powerful by taking over the nobles' land, but the lands owned by the Church and the monasteries had not been touched. The Church was a huge landowner, and the monasteries were no longer important to economic and social growth in the way they had been two hundred years earlier. In fact they were

unpopular because many monks no longer led a good religious life but lived in wealth and comfort.

Henry disliked the power of the Church in England because, since it was an international organisation, he could not completely control it. If Henry had been powerful enough in Europe to influence the Pope it might have been different. But there were two far more powerful states, France, and Spain, the Holy Roman Empire, lying between him around Rome. The power of the Catholic Church in England could therefore work against his own authority, and the taxes paid to the Church reduced his own income. Henry was not the only European king with a wish to "centralise" state authority. Many others were doing the same thing. But Henry had another reason for standing up to the authority of the Church.

In 1510 Henry had married Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his elder brother Arthur. But by 1526 she had still not had a son who survived infancy and was now unlikely to do so. Henry tried to persuade the pope to allow him to divorce Catherine. Normally, Henry need not have expected any difficulty. His chief minister, Cardinal Wolsey, had already been skilful in advising on Henry's foreign and home policy. Wolsey hoped that his skills, and his important position in the Church, would be successful in persuading the pope. But the pope was controlled by Charles V, who was Holy Roman Emperor and king of Spain, and also Catherine's nephew. For both political and family reasons he wanted Henry to stay married to Catherine. The pope did not wish to anger either Charles or Henry, but eventually he was forced to do as Charles V wanted. He forbade Henry's divorce.

Henry was extremely angry and the first person to feel his anger was his own minister, Cardinal Wolsey. Wolsey only escaped execution by dying of natural causes on his way to the king's court, and after Wolsey no priest ever again became an important minister of the king. In 1531 Henry persuaded the bishops to make him head of the Church in England, and this became law after Parliament passed the Act of Supremacy in 1534. It was a popular decision. Henry was now free to divorce Catherine and marry his new love, Anne Boleyn. He hoped Anne would give him a son to follow him on the throne.

Henry's break with Rome was purely political. He had simply wanted to control the Church and to keep its wealth in his own kingdom. He did not approve of the new ideas of Reformation Protestantism introduced by Martin Luther in Germany and John Calvin in Geneva. He still believed in the Catholic faith. Indeed, Henry had earlier written a book criticising Luther's teaching and the pope had rewarded him with the title *Fidei Defensor*, Defender of the Faith. The pope must have regretted his action. The letters "F. D." are still to be found on every British coin.

Like his father, Henry VIII governed England through his close advisers, men who were completely dependent on him for their position. But when he broke with Rome, he used Parliament to make the break legal. Through several Acts of

Parliament between 1532 and 1536, England became politically a Protestant country, even though the popular religion was still Catholic.

Once England had accepted the separation from Rome Henry took the English Reformation a step further. Wolsey's place as the king's chief minister was taken by one of his assistants, Thomas Cromwell. Henry and Cromwell made a careful survey of Church property, the first properly organised tax survey since the Domesday Book 450 years earlier. Between 1536 and 1539 they closed 560 monasteries and other religious houses. Henry did this in order to make money, but he also wanted to be popular with the rising classes of landowners and merchants. He therefore gave or sold much of the monasteries' lands to them. Many smaller landowners made their fortunes. Most knocked down the old monastery buildings and used the stone to create magnificent new houses for themselves. Other buildings were just left to fall down.

Meanwhile the monks and nuns were thrown out. Some were given small sums of money, but many were unable to find work and became wandering beggars. The dissolution of the monasteries was probably the greatest act of official destruction in the history of Britain.

Henry proved that his break with Rome was neither a religious nor a diplomatic disaster. He remained loyal to Catholic religious teaching, and executed Protestants who refused to accept it. He even made an alliance with Charles V of Spain against France. For political reasons both of them were willing to forget the quarrel over Catherine of Aragon, and also England's break with Rome.

Henry died in 1547, leaving behind his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, and his three children. Mary, the eldest, was the daughter of Catherine of Aragon. Elizabeth was the daughter of his second wife, Anne Boleyn, whom he had executed because she was unfaithful. Nine-year-old Edward was the son of Jane Seymour, the only wife whom Henry had really loved, but who had died giving birth to his only son.

Answer the questions:

1. What were the reasons why Henry VIII disliked the power of the Church of England?
2. When did the Parliament pass the Law of Supremacy? What did this law mean?
3. What does the letters FD on British coins stand for?
4. What religion became official during the rule of Henry VIII?
5. What happened to the monasteries during the rule of Henry VIII?

TEXT 2

Scotland and England

The Scottish monarchs tried to introduce the same kind of centralised monarchy that the Tudors had so successfully developed in England. But it was much harder, because the Scottish economy was weaker, and Scottish society more lawless. However, James IV, James V, Mary who was executed by her cousin Elizabeth of England, and her son James VI made important steps forward. They tried to control the lawless border country with England, and the disobedient Highland clans in the north. For the Scottish kings there was always a problem. The most disobedient were often the best fighters, and no king wanted to make enemies of those who might help him in battle against the English.

Knowing how weak they were, the Scottish kings usually avoided war with England. They made a peace treaty with Henry VII, the first with an English king since 1328, and James IV married Henry's daughter Margaret. But Henry VIII still wanted Scotland to accept his authority. In 1513 his army destroyed the Scottish army at Flodden. It was the worst defeat the Scots ever experienced. James himself was killed, and with him over twenty Scottish nobles.

The battle of Flodden increased the disagreement between those Scottish nobles who felt that Scotland should move towards a closer friendship with England and those who wanted to remain loyal to the Auld Alliance with France. The Scottish monarch had to find a balance between those two, to keep both his nobles and his neighbours happy. The Protestant Reformation in Scotland, and particularly in England, also increased^{the} uncertainty and danger. There was talk of a Catholic invasion of England by France and Spain. Many Scots wanted to stay on the side of Catholic Europe in the hope of sharing the fruits of a Catholic invasion of England.

But Henry VIII reminded the Scots that it was dangerous to work against him. He sent another army into Scotland to make the Scottish James V accept his authority. James's army was badly defeated and James himself died shortly after. Henry hoped to marry his son Edward to the baby Queen of Scots, Mary, and in this way join the two countries together under an English king. An agreement was reached in 1543.

Ordinary Scots were most unhappy at the idea of being ruled by England. In spite of their fear of the powerful English armies, a new Scottish parliament, aware of popular feeling, turned down the marriage agreement. For the next two years English soldiers punished them by burning and destroying the houses of southern Scotland. Rather than give little Mary to the English, the Scots sent her to France, where she married the French king's son in 1558.

Answer the questions:

1. Why was it difficult to introduce centralized monarchy in Scotland?
2. Why didn't the king want to make enemies with the Highland clans?
3. What was the disagreement among the Scottish nobles?
4. How did Henry hope to join England and Scotland under an English king?
5. Were ordinary Scots happy at this idea?

TEXT 3**Wales**

Closer to home, the Tudors did their best to bring Wales, Ireland and Scotland under English control.

Henry VII was half Welsh. At the battle of Bosworth in 1485 Henry's flag was the red dragon of Wales. It had been the badge of the legendary last British (Welsh) king to fight against the Saxons. At the time, Caxton was printing Malory's poem *Morte d'Arthur*. Henry cleverly made the most of popular "Arthurian" interest to suggest that he was somehow connected with the ancient British king, and named his eldest son Arthur. He also brought many Welshmen to his court.

Arthur, Prince of Wales, died early and Henry's second son became Henry VIII. But he did not share his father's love of Wales. His interest was in power and authority, through direct control. He wanted the Welsh to become English.

One example of the changes Henry VIII made was in the matter of names. At that time the Welsh did not have family names. They used their own first name with those of their father and grandfather, using *ap*, which meant "son of". Names were long, and the English, who had been using family names for about three hundred years, found them difficult. From 1535 the English put pressure on the Welsh to use an English system of names by preventing Welsh names being used in law courts and on official papers. By 1750 the use of Welsh names had almost disappeared, although not before one Welshman had made a final and humorous protest.

He signed his name "Sion ap William ap Sion ap William ap Sion ap Dafydd ap Ithel Fychan as Cynrig ap Robert ap Iowerth ap Rhyrid ap Iowerth ap Madoc ap Ednawain Bendew, called after the English fashion John Jones." Many Welsh people accepted wrong English ways of pronouncing their names. Others took their fathers' first names and ap Richard, ap Robert, ap Hywel, ap Hugh soon became Pritchard, Probert, Powell and Pugh. Others who had not used "ap" were known as Williams, Thomas, Davies, Hughes and so on.

Between 1536 and 1543 Wales became joined to England under one administration. English law was now the only law for Wales. Local Welshmen were appointed as JPs, so that the Welsh gentry became part of the ruling English establishment. Those parts of Wales which had not been "shired" were now

organised like English counties. Welshmen entered the English parliament. English became the only official language, and Welsh was soon only spoken in the hills. Although Welsh was not allowed as an official language, Henry VIII gave permission for a Welsh Bible to be printed, which became the basis on which the Welsh language survived.

Although most people gave up speaking Welsh, poets and singers continued to use it. The spoken word had remained the most important part of Welsh culture since the Saxon invasion. The introduction of schools, using English, almost destroyed this last fortress of Welsh culture. The gatherings of poets and singers, known as *eisteddfods*, which had been going on since 1170 suddenly stopped. But at the end of the eighteenth century, there were still a few who could speak Welsh. *Eisteddfods* began again, bringing back a tradition which still continues today

Find the information and tell about Eisteddfods.

TEXT 4

Ireland

Henry VIII wanted to bring Ireland under his authority, as he had done with Wales. Earlier kings had allowed the powerful Anglo-Irish noble families to rule, but Henry destroyed their power. He persuaded the Irish parliament to recognise him as king of Ireland.

However, Henry also tried to make the Irish accept his English Church Reformation. But in Ireland, unlike England, the monasteries and the Church were still an important part of economic and social life. And the Irish nobility and gentry, unlike the English, felt it was too dangerous to take monastic land. They refused to touch it. When an Anglo-Irish noble rebelled against Henry VIII, he did so in the name of Catholicism. Henry VIII failed to get what he wanted in Ireland. In fact he made things worse by bringing Irish nationalism and Catholicism together against English rule.

It is possible that, without the danger of foreign invasion, the Tudors might have given up trying to control the Irish. But Ireland tempted Catholic Europe as a place from which to attack the English. In 1580, during Elizabeth I's reign, many Irish rebelled, encouraged by the arrival of a few Spanish and French soldiers. Queen Elizabeth's soldiers saw the rebellious Irish population as wild and primitive people and treated them with great cruelty.

The Tudors fought four wars during the period to make the Irish accept their authority and their religion. In the end they destroyed the old Gaelic way of life and introduced English government.

Ireland became England's first important colony. The effect of English rule was greatest in the north, in Ulster, where the Irish tribes had fought longest. Here,

after the Tudor conquest, lands were taken and sold to English and Scottish merchants. The native Irish were forced to leave or to work for these settlers.

The Protestant settlers took most of the good land in Ulster. Even today most good land in Ulster is owned by Protestants, and most poor land by Catholics.

3.2. История монархии. Роль монархии в современном обществе

Pre-reading activities:

1. Is Britain a constitutional or absolute monarchy?
2. Who is the present sovereign in the UK?
3. Who is the heir to the throne?

Read the text to see if you were right.

TEXT 1

The Queen is a constitutional monarch. That means she isn't the head of Britain's government, but she is the official head of state. In law, the Queen is the head of the executive, legislature, judiciary, the Commander-in-Chief of all armed forces of the Crown and the head of the Established Church of England. In practice, she has little direct power. So, she does what Parliament tells her. And she reigns but doesn't rule.

The present sovereign is Queen Elizabeth II. She was born on 21st April, 1926; was married to Prince Philip, the Duke of Edinburgh, on 20th November, 1947; ascended the throne on 6th February 1952; and was crowned on 2nd June, 1953.

The present sovereign is Elizabeth II. In Britain the monarchy is hereditary descending to the sons of the sovereign in order of seniority (or if there are no sons, to the daughters). So, the eldest son prince Charles, the prince of Wales is the heir to the throne. (Members of the Royal Family in order of succession to the Throne are: Prince Charles of Wales, Prince William of Wales, Prince Henry of Wales, The Duke of York, Princess Beatrice of York, Princess Eugenie of York, The Earl of Wessex, and the Princess Royal).

As a result of a long process of change during which the Monarchy's absolute power has been gradually reduced, custom now dictates that the Queen usually follows ministerial advice. Within this framework she performs a range of important formal duties, so she summons, prorogues, dissolves Parliament; gives Royal Assent to legislation passed by the UK or Scottish Parliament or by the Northern Ireland Assembly.

The Queen is a constitutional monarch. That means she isn't the head of Britain's government, but she is the official head of state. So, she does what Parliament tells her. And she reigns but doesn't rule.

The present sovereign is Queen Elizabeth II. She was born on 21st April, 1926; was married to Prince Philip, the Duke of Edinburgh, on 20th November, 1947; ascended the throne on 6th February 1952; and was crowned on 2nd June, 1953.

The Queen summons, prorogues and dissolves Parliament; as a rule she opens the new session with a speech from the Throne and she must give Royal assent before a bill becomes law.

The State Opening of Parliament happens in the first week of November. On that day Her Majesty in her Crown Jewels or the royal regalia from the tower of London travels from Buckingham Palace to Westminster in the State Coach. In Parliament in the House of Lords she makes a speech to all of Britain's MPs and Lords about the government's plans for the next year. The Queen doesn't write it, she only reads out what the Prime Minister's staff write for her.

The Queen formally appoints important office holders, such as the Prime Minister and other government ministers, judges, officers in the armed forces, governors, diplomats, bishops and other senior clergy of the Church of England. In instances where people have been wrongly convicted of crimes, she is involved in pardoning them. She also confers peerages, knighthoods and other honours.

In international affairs the Queen, as Head of State, has the formal power to declare war and make peace, recognise foreign states, to conclude treaties and to take over or give up territory.

As Head of State, the Queen maintains close contact with the Prime Minister, with whom she has a weekly audience when she is in London, and with other Ministers of the Crown. The Queen sees, separately, two of her Private Secretaries with the daily quota of official paperwork.

The Queen holds Privy Council meetings, gives audiences to her ministers and officials in the UK and overseas, receives accounts of Cabinet decisions, reads dispatches and signs state papers. She is consulted on many aspects of national life, and must show complete impartiality.

As Head of the Commonwealth, Queen Elizabeth makes official visits abroad every year. In winter 1953 Her Majesty set out to accomplish, as Queen, the Commonwealth tour she had begun before the death of her father. With the Duke of Edinburgh she visited Bermuda, Jamaica, Fiji, Tonga, New Zealand, Australia, Ceylon, Uganda, Malta and Gibraltar. This was the first of innumerable tours of the Commonwealth they have undertaken at the invitation of the host governments. During the past forty years The Queen and Prince Philip have also made frequent visits to the other countries outside the Commonwealth at the invitation of foreign Heads of State.

The Queen begins her ordinary working day by scanning the daily British newspapers.

Every day, about 300 letters from the public arrive, and are taken to her desk unopened. The Queen chooses a selection to read herself and tells her staff how she would like them to be answered. This enables the Queen to see personally a typical cross-section of her daily correspondence. Virtually every letter is answered by staff in her Private Secretary's office or by a lady-in-waiting.

1. Answer the following questions:

1. Do you think that having so many functions and duties the Queen works hard? If so, why?
2. What does a constitutional monarchy mean?
3. Why do we say that the British sovereign reigns but doesn't rule?
4. The monarchy in the UK is hereditary descending. What does it mean?
5. Who is the heir to the throne?
6. What title has the heir to the throne got?

2. Match the words and combinations with the explanations.

1. Monarchy
2. Parliamentary monarchy
3. Absolute monarchy
4. To become a monarch
5. To restore a monarchy
6. Royalty
7. Royal
8. Royal assent
9. sovereign
10. Royal prerogative
11. To become a sovereign
12. To be crowned
13. To be an heir (heiress)
14. Hereditary descending
15. The head of the
 - a. executive
 - b. legislature
 - c. judiciary
16. The Commander-in-Chief of all armed forces of the Crown
17. a. To summon Parliament
 - b. To dissolve Parliament
 - c. To prorogue Parliament
18. To provide charity
19. To present honours

20. MP
21. Reign

- A) a form of government in which the head of state is a monarch a monarch does what Parliament tells her (him) the power of a monarch is complete, total without limits to become a king or queen
B) to bring back a monarchy
C) members of royal families (either individually or collectively)
D) a member of a royal family;
E) relating to or suitable for a king or queen
F) formal permission given by a sovereign (for a parliamentary act to become law) a supreme ruler or head, especially a monarch the right of a monarch in theory to become a king or queen
G) to become the sovereign ruler to be a person with the legal right to receive a title, properly, when the owner dies passed on from parent to child
H) a person who carries out what has been planned or decided the head of the assembly which makes law
I) the head of the system of law
J) courts
K) a person in command of all the military forces
L) to gather MPs together to open Parliament
M) to bring sessions of Parliament
N) to an end (to close Parliament)
O) to break a session of Parliament so that it may be gathered again in the next session
P) to help the poor (money, food, etc.)
Q) to give medals to people who have done smth special
R) a Member of Parliament
S) a king's or queen's time on the throne

3. Sum up with your partner everything in two columns. Which of the Queen's functions are formal? Which are real? Think and discuss in sub-groups.

THE QUEEN'S FUNCTIONS	
Formal	Real

4. Find the information about the Royal Family tree and answer the questions.

1. Who is the official head of the country?
2. What is the official title of The Queen?
3. If you meet The Queen what do you call her?
4. Who is The Queen's husband?
5. Why isn't he called the King?
6. How many children have they got?
7. Who are their children?
8. Which members of the British Royal Family are best known in our country?

TEXT 2

Royal London

You cannot go far in London without being aware of the city's close connection with the Crown. There are royal palaces, royal parks and colourful ceremonies; if you look at the souvenirs you can see how important royalty is to the capital's tourist industry.

The most important building, but not the most beautiful, is Buckingham Palace, which is the official residence of the Queen.

It overlooks St James's Park where the previous royal residence, St James's Palace, can be found. Running through the park, from Trafalgar Square to the front of Buckingham Palace is The Mall, a wide tree-lined avenue designed for royal processions on ceremonial occasions.

St James's Park is one of ten royal parks in and around London which are owned by the Crown but are open to the public free of charge. They make a special contribution to city-living because their existence has ensured that there are areas of green between the flats, office blocks and other buildings, and that there is somewhere quiet and attractive to escape to, away from traffic jams, crowded shops and congested pavements.

Each park has its own character. Hyde Park, for example, was originally a hunting forest and is still popular with horseriders. People who enjoy a good argument can go to Speakers' Corner (near Marble Arch tube station), where they can listen to people giving their views on a variety of topics to anyone who will listen.

Regent's Park, which was also originally a hunting park, is now the home of London Zoo, and an open air theatre which delights summer audiences with performances of Shakespeare's plays.

Not all the parks are in the centre of London. Greenwich, where the Maritime Museum is, and Richmond, famous for its beautiful trees and wild deer, are both in the suburbs.

Word search:

Can you find five words connected with royalty in the square? They are not all in the text. Some have been written vertically, some horizontally and some diagonally.

B	H	R	O	Y	A	L	M	S
Q	M	N	B	D	E	O	P	O
C	R	O	W	N	C	P	N	V
G	O	A	N	S	R	L	T	E
M	R	L	S	A	E	C	R	R
C	E	A	L	I	C	S	I	E
J	I	N	O	N	T	H	N	I
K	G	A	P	F	X	U	R	G
W	N	C	W	J	Z	Q	S	N

3.3. История Британской империи, страны Содружества

Find information about the Commonwealth and then read the text about the Commonwealth from the McMillan encyclopedia (1997). What has changed in the association since that time?

Commonwealth (British)

A loose association of 48 independent nations once subject to the imperial government of the UK. The Commonwealth of Nations was established by the Statute of Westminster (1931), which was based on the principles, enunciated at the 1926 'Imperial Conference, of member states' autonomy, equality, and common allegiance to the Crown; its name was modified to the Commonwealth after World War II. Its member states, the populations of which comprise nearly a quarter of the world's population, are Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, the Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Botswana, Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Dominica, The Gambia, Ghana, Grenada, Guyana, India, Jamaica, Kenya, Kiribati, Lesotho, Malawi, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, New Zealand, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, St Kitts-Nevis, St Lucia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Tanzania, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda, the UK,

Vanuatu, Western Samoa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe; Nauru, Tuvalu, Maldives, and St Vincent and the Grenadines are special members and are not represented at the meetings of Commonwealth heads of government; there are in addition a number of associated states and dependent territories. Ireland withdrew from the Commonwealth in 1949, South Africa in 1961, Pakistan in 1971, and Fiji in 1987. Commonwealth heads of government meet every two years but finance ministers meet annually. These meetings are supplemented by other ministerial consultants as well as such permanent organizations as the Agricultural Bureaux, the Education Liaison Committee, and the Science Council. The Commonwealth Secretariat headquarters are at Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London, and its secretary general is the Guyanese. Shridath Ramphal (1928). Commonwealth Day (replacing Empire Day in 1958) is celebrated on the official birthday of Queen Elizabeth II.

Exercises:

1. Read the text again and answer the questions:

1. When was the Commonwealth of Nations established?
2. What are the main principles of the Commonwealth?
3. When was the name of the association modified?
4. What countries withdrew from the Commonwealth and when?
5. How often do Commonwealth heads of government and finance ministers meet?
6. Who are these meetings supplemented by?
7. Where is the Commonwealth Secretariat headquarters situated?
8. When is Commonwealth Day celebrated and what "Day" did it replace?

2. Make sure you know how to name the following countries in Russian:

Antigua and Barbuda, Australia, the Bahamas, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Botswana, Brunei, Canada, Cyprus, Dominica, The Gambia, Ghana, Grenada, Guyana, India, Jamaica, Kenya, Kiribati, Lesotho, Malawi, Malaysia, Malta, Mauritius, New Zealand, Nigeria, Papua New Guinea, St Kitts-Nevis, St Lucia, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Tanzania, Tonga, Trinidad and Tobago, Uganda, the UK, Vanuatu, Western Samoa, Zambia, and Zimbabwe; Nauru, Tuvalu, Maldives, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Ireland, South Africa, Pakistan, Fiji.

3. Transcribe the following names and train them:

the Agricultural Bureaux, the Education Liaison Committee, the Science Council, the Commonwealth Secretariat headquarters, Marlborough House, Pall Mall.

4. Learn the names of the countries that are members of the Commonwealth by heart.
5. Make sure you do not mix the following notions:

Commonwealth (1649-53) The period in English history between the execution of Charles I and the establishment of the 'Protectorate'; the term is sometimes used synonymously with Interregnum to refer to the entire period between the execution of Charles I and the 'Restoration' in 1660.

Commonwealth (British) A loose association of 48 independent nations once subject to the imperial government of the UK.

3.4. Внешняя политика Великобритании. Отношения с Европой и Россией

TEXT 1

What do you know about the role of the UK in the world? Read the text and compare your ideas with the main points of the text.

Britain's foreign policy dilemmas

All countries foster myths about themselves, for they are essential to a national self-image. One of Britain's myths is to do with its world position, based on the lingering after-glow of a bygone glory. For two hundred years, until the 1950s, Britain's view of the world was dominated by its overseas territorial possessions and trade. Britain was reluctantly involved in continental Europe, usually only when its own security was directly threatened. Since the disappearance of its empire and the comparative decline in its power, Britain has adjusted its world view with difficulty. In 1959 the Prime Minister asked his intelligence services to review the likely world position of Britain by 1970. This review challenged the maintenance of a nuclear weapons programme, foresaw that the Commonwealth would become increasingly useless as an economic unit, and forecast that Britain would be dwarfed politically and economically by the new European Common Market. But the conclusions were watered down by senior civil servants before they reached the Prime Minister. They contradicted too many assumptions of Britain's world position. There are still occasions when Britain acts as if it were of greater importance than perhaps it is. In the words of one retired diplomat, once ambassador to Paris and then to Washington, "We don't brag as some countries do, but we do tend to assume we'll be treated as a great power."

As a result, Britain's foreign policy tended to lag behind the reality of its world position and to conflict with its true economic interests. It has repeatedly adjusted its overseas political and military commitments since 1945, by troop reduction or political withdrawals, but after rather than before these had become a

burden. The 1982 Falklands/Las Malvinas armed conflict is a good example. Britain could no longer afford to defend these islands, and had been discussing with Argentina over several years how to resolve their status. But there had been no sense of urgency. In 1981 the Ministry of Defence economised on the defence of the islands before the Foreign Office had resolved their status with Argentina. This fatally gave the wrong signal to Argentina and resulted in war. The recapture of the Falklands was costly, not only in direct expenditure, roughly £10 billion, but also in lost economic opportunities in Latin America. After its victory Britain was in a far more difficult position for resolving the status of the Falklands in line with British economic resources and political status.

The legacy of empire, exemplified by the Falklands war, has distracted Britain from concentrating on its economic and political future. During the 1970s Britain was dogged by a sense of economic and political weakness, and by the apparent inevitability of post-imperial decline. During the 1980s Margaret Thatcher resolved to reverse the process, and claimed, "Once more Britain is confident, strong, trusted.... Strong, because our economy is enterprising, competitive and expanding. And trusted, because we are known to be a powerful ally and a faithful friend."

Not everyone agrees with such an assessment. Britain's military strength (discussed below) has been achieved at the expense of the civil economy. Moreover, even with economic prosperity, Britain's comparative world position is bound to decline during the coming decades on account of the rise of the Pacific economies.

To some it seems as if Britain has, in the hard words of one American statesman in the 1960s, "lost an Empire, but it has not yet found a role". At the end of the 1980s Britain was still uncertain where its primary interests lay, whether it was with the United States, its most important military ally, or with the European Community, its most important economic arena. Because of this uncertainty it was slower than its European allies to respond to the liberalisation of Eastern Europe, slower to invest economic and political effort in the newly free countries, and more anxious than others that America's defence of Western Europe should not decline.

Britain fears the dangers of instability and of dismantling its defences. It also fears that without East-West confrontation, its own pivotal position in the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) alliance will disappear, and that it might return to what it was until the seventeenth century, an offshore island on the edge of European affairs.

Ever since the Second World War, Britain has believed in a 'special relationship' with the United States. This relationship is based upon a shared language and Anglo-Saxon culture, and upon a strong alliance forged by Churchill

and Roosevelt during the war. In the 1980s Margaret Thatcher spoke of the "very very special relationship" with the United States, partly because she consciously imitated the Churchillian style and partly because she got on particularly well with President Reagan. But the United States has seldom valued the special relationship as highly as Britain has done.

For Britain the relationship was vital to its own world standing. For the United States it was useful for strengthening the European commitment to NATO. The special relationship will only last if both countries have something to gain from it.

During the 1980s there were signs in Britain that the relationship was weakening, as the implications of growing political and economic unity in Western Europe became harder to ignore.

Exercises:

Read the text carefully and make up 10 questions on its context. Work in pairs and ask your group-mate the questions and answer his or her ones.

TEXT 2

Read the text and write its outline.

Britain in Europe

In the long term Britain is bound primarily to Europe, despite its sometimes unenthusiastic view of the European Community (EC). Unlike the founder members, Britain had not suffered the horrors of armed invasion, so it did not have the same passion to create an economic and political network which would ensure harmony between the market economies of Western Europe. Britain joined the Community in 1973, but it remained diffident, with several MPs of both main parties believing membership to be a mistake. By 1980 it was still possible that Britain could leave the European Community, on account of the dispute over its contribution to the Common Agricultural Policy.

By 1990, even though it remained one of the most argumentative members of the Community, there was no longer any question of Britain giving up membership. But it continued to show it was less enthusiastic than other major members about accepting the implications of membership - a single monetary system and reduced individual sovereignty. The European Monetary System (EMS) was created in 1979, but Britain joined it only in late 1990. British resentment and fears of interference from Brussels in the mid 1980s were well expressed by one Conservative MP: "Almost overnight and largely unnoticed by our fellow citizens, Britain's right to decide many practical matters, even her own

destiny, is being surrendered to the majority vote and the interests of other nations, not all of whom share our parliamentary traditions."

Against such attitudes the British Commissioner to the European Community argued that, "Only on a European rather than a national basis can we hold our own in the world." By 1990 few could disagree with this assessment. Britain's economy is closely interrelated with the other members of the Community. Most large companies now operate across frontiers, making the idea of national economic sovereignty meaningless. At a time of world economic crisis, effective decision-making must be transferred from individual members to the European Community as an economic bloc. Without the economic dimension, national political sovereignty has reduced meaning.

Yet this issue produced the crisis within government which led to the downfall of Margaret Thatcher in November 1990. While her ministers had sought compromise with European partners, Mrs Thatcher continued to make defiant statements concerning loss of national sovereignty until the moment she left office. Even after her departure, the issue of national sovereignty remained an important one. At the Maastricht summit in December 1991 John Major agreed to the new EC treaty, but insisted on Parliament's right to 'opt out' of the proposed single European currency at a later date. He also declined to sign the Social Charter safeguarding minimal employment conditions throughout the Community.

Europe occupies two distinct positions in popular esteem. For a long time there has been strong middle-class support for membership of the European Community, based not only upon Britain's pragmatic interests, but also upon interest in European culture.

Many middle-class Britons take their holidays exploring different parts of Europe. They are largely pan-European in outlook. However, there is also another category of British visitor to the Continent. These are the young holidaymakers and hooligans who enjoy drunken violence, for example, on Spain's Mediterranean coast, or following English football teams. Their behaviour is not solely to do with social problems in Britain. It also reflects the contemptuous attitude they have for those who are not British. Although these people express themselves drunkenly or violently, it is also true that many other British people do not yet feel culturally European.

Exercises:

1. Work in pairs. Speak on the topic using you outline.
2. Read the text and write out the figures and the key information. Work in pair and use the figures to speak about the relationships between Hong Kong and Britain.

Hong Kong

Margaret Thatcher's claim that Britain was a "powerful ally and a faithful friend" is viewed with scepticism in the Crown Colony of Hong Kong. Most people in Hong Kong feel dissatisfied with the agreement Britain reached with China for the handover of Hong Kong to China in 1997. They believe that Britain has failed in its obligations. The 1984 accord with Peking guaranteed that after 1997 the Legislative Council for the ex-colony would include 30 per cent directly elected representatives. But a fully elected Assembly will not be created until 2007, and may not even occur then.

In 1990, in order to calm Hong Kong's nerves, Britain offered British citizenship to 50,000 key Hong Kong civil servants and their families. But this may well prove the worst of all worlds. It has possibly offered insufficient passports to ensure the survival of Hong Kong as a stable society or dynamic economy, but offered enough that many of those who get them will seize the opportunity to get out. In fact 3.25 million of Hong Kong's 6 million residents have United Kingdom passports. It might have been wiser to have adopted the higher risk strategy of offering all of these the right to live in Britain, since this would more probably have reassured the Hong Kong Chinese that Britain would not abandon them.

3. Refer to British newspapers and make a 5-minute report about current relationships of the UK with different European countries.

3.5. Школьное образование, реформы 80-х. Высшее образование, университеты

Pre-reading activities:

Here are some names that are used to describe the different stages of education in Britain. What do you know about them? What are their Russian equivalents?

play school/group nursery school

infant school junior school

comprehensive school

or grammar school

sixth form college (16-18)

college or university

pre-school (2-5 years old)

primary (5/6-12/13)

secondary (12/13-16/18)

further/higher (18+)

TEXT 1

The education system

Education in Britain is provided by **the Local Education Authority (LEA)** in each county. It is financed partly by the Government and partly by local taxes. Until recently, planning and organization were not controlled by central government. Each LEA was free to decide how to organize education in its own area. In September 1988, however, the '**National Curriculum**' was introduced, which means that there is now greater governmental control over what is taught in schools.

Nursery education (under 5 years). Children do not have to go to school until they reach the age of five, but there is some free *nursery-school education* before that age.

However, LEAs do not have *nursery-school places* for all who would like them and these places are usually given to families in special circumstances, for example families with one parent only. Because of the small number of nursery schools, parents in many areas have formed *play groups* where children under 5 years can go for a morning or afternoon a couple of times a week.

Primary education (5 to 11 years). Primary education takes place in *infant schools* (pupils aged from 5 to 7 years) and junior schools (from 8 to 11 years). (Some LEAs have a different system in which middle schools replace junior schools and take pupils aged from 9 to 12 years.)

Private education (5 to 18 years). Some parents choose to pay for private education in spite of the existence of free state education. Private schools are called by different names to state schools: the preparatory (often called 'prep') schools are for pupils aged up to 13, and the public schools are for 13 to 18 year-olds. These schools are very expensive and they are attended by about 5 per cent of the school population.

Secondary education (11 to 16/18 years). Since the 1944 Education Act of Parliament, free secondary education has been available to all children in Britain. Indeed, children must go to school until the age of 16, and pupils may stay on for one or two years more if they wish.

Secondary schools are usually much larger than primary schools and most children -over 80 per cent - go to a comprehensive school at the age of 11. These schools are not selective - you don't have to pass an exam to go there.

In 1965 the Labour Government introduced the policy of comprehensive education. Before that time, all children took an exam at the age of 11 called the '11+'. Approximately the top 20 per cent were chosen to go to the academic grammar schools. Those who failed the '11 + ' (80 per cent) went to secondary modern schools.

A lot of people thought that this system of selection at the age of 11 was unfair on many children. So comprehensive schools were introduced to offer

suitable courses for pupils of *all* abilities. Some LEAs started to change over to comprehensive education immediately, but some were harder to convince and slower to act. There are a few LEAs who still keep the old system of grammar schools, but most LEAs have now changed over completely to non-selective education in comprehensive schools.

School uniform

The pupils at Lynn Faulkner's school, like the pupils at most secondary schools in Britain, have to wear a school uniform. This usually means a white blouse for girls (perhaps with a tie), with a dark-coloured skirt and pullover. The colours may be grey, brown, navy blue, dark green or similar. Boys wear a shirt and tie, dark trousers and dark-coloured pullovers. Pupils of both sexes wear blazers - a kind of jacket - with the school badge on the pocket. They often have to wear some kind of hat on the way to and from school - caps for the boys, and berets or some other kind of hat for the girls. Shoes are usually black or brown and should be sensible - no high heels!

Young people in Britain often don't like their school uniform, especially the hats and shoes. Sometimes they do not wear the right clothes. Schools will often give them a warning the first time that this happens but will then punish them if they continue not to wear the correct uniform.

Talking points:

1. Do you think secondary education should be selective or comprehensive? What are the advantages and disadvantages of both systems?
2. What do you think are the advantages of school uniform? And the disadvantages?

TEXT 2

Educational reform

In the late 1980s the Conservative Government made important changes to the British educational system. One of the most fundamental changes was the introduction of a new 'National Curriculum'. The aim was to provide a more balanced education.

In secondary schools, for example, 80% of the timetable must be spent on the 'core curriculum'. This must include English, Mathematics, Science and a Modern Language for all pupils up to the age of 16. (Before 1989 pupils of 13 or 14 used to choose the subjects they wanted to continue studying.) At the same time, the new curriculum places greater emphasis on the more practical aspects of education. Skills are being taught which students will need for life and work, and 'work experience' - when pupils who are soon going to leave school spend some

time in a business or industry - has become a standard part of the school programme.

Together with the 'National Curriculum', a programme of 'Records of Achievement' was introduced. This programme is known as 'REACH', and it attempts to set learning objectives for each term and year in primary school, and for each component of each subject at secondary school. This has introduced much more central control and standardization into what is taught. Many people think this will raise educational standards, but some teachers argue that they have lost the ability to respond to the needs and interests of their pupils, which may be different from pupils in other areas.

As part of the 'REACH' programme, new tests have been introduced for pupils at the ages of 7, 11, 13 and 16. The aim of these tests is to discover any schools or areas which are not teaching to high enough standards. But many parents and teachers are unhappy. They feel that it is a return to the days of the '11 +' and that the tests are unfair because they reflect differences in home background rather than in ability. Some teachers also fear that because of preparation for the tests, lessons will be more 'narrow', with a lot of time being spent on Mathematics and English, for example, while other interesting subjects which are not tested may be left out.

Educational reform is bringing other changes too. City Technology Colleges (CTCs) are new super-schools for scientifically gifted children, who - the Government hopes - will be the scientists and technological experts of the future. These schools are partly funded by industry.

In addition to the CTCs, since 1988 the Government has given ordinary schools the right to 'opt out of (choose to leave) the LEA if a majority of parents want it. Previously all state schools were under the control of the LEA, which provided the schools in its area with money for books etc., paid the teachers, and controlled educational policy. Now schools which opt out will receive money direct from the Government and will be free to spend it as they like. They can even pay teachers more or less than in LEA schools if they want to, and they can accept any children - the pupils do not have to come from the neighbourhood. Many people fear that this will mean a return to selection, i.e. these schools will choose the brightest children. The Government says that the new schools will mean more choice for parents.

Exams

At the age of 14 or 15, in the third or fourth form of secondary school, pupils begin to choose their exam subjects. In 1988 a new public examination - the General Certificate of Secondary Education (GCSE) - was introduced for 16 year-olds. This examination assesses pupils on the work they do in the 4th and 5th year at secondary school, and is often internally assessed, although there may also be an exam at the end of the course.

Pupils who stay on into the sixth form or who go on to a Sixth Form College (17 year-olds in the Lower Sixth and 18 year-olds in the Upper Sixth) usually fall into two categories. Some pupils will be retaking GCSEs in order to get better grades. Others will study two or three subjects for an 'A' Level (Advanced Level) GCE exam (General Certificate of Education). This is a highly specialized exam and is necessary for University entrance. Since 1988 there has been a new level of exam: the 'AS' Level (Advanced Supplementary), which is worth half an 'A' Level. This means that if pupils wish to study more than two or three subjects in the sixth form they can take a combination of 'A' and 'AS' Levels. In Scotland the exam system is slightly different

Leaving school at sixteen

Many people decide to leave school at the age of 16 and go to a Further Education (FE) College. Here most of the courses are linked to some kind of practical vocational training, for example in engineering, typing, cooking or hairdressing. Some young people are given 'day release' (their employer allows them time off work) so that they can follow a course to help them in their job.

For those 16 year-olds who leave school and who cannot find work but do not want to go to FE College, the Government has introduced the Training Credit Scheme. This scheme allows young people £2,000 to buy training leading to a National Vocational Qualification from an employer or training organisation that participates in the scheme. Because the young people pay for their own training it encourages employers to give them work. It also gives the trainee valuable work experience.

(from *Spotlight on Britain*)

1. Answer the questions:

1. What are the play groups and who organize them?
2. Is private education popular in Britain?
3. What policy was introduced by the Labour government in 1965 and what effect on education did it have?
4. What changes were made in British education in the late 1980s and what was their aim?
5. What are CTC and who are they for?
6. What are the exams?
7. What is the Sixth Form College?
8. What are the opportunities in education for those who leave school at 16? What kind of training do they get?
9. What is a "day release"?
10. What are the main stages of British education?

2. Decipher the following abbreviations and tell what you know about them.

LEA, REACH, CTC, GSCE, AS Level, A Level, FE.

3. Project. Compare British system of education with Russian. What reforms are taking place in our system of school and higher education? What else would you change? Explain your ideas. Make a model of a system of education. Comment on it.

Pre-reading activities:

1. Fill in the gaps in the sentences.

1. ...% of students in Britain receive higher education.
2. There are universities in Britain.
3. Oxford and Cambridge were founded in the century.
4. Students take out ... to pay for their education.
5. ... universities are most popular with women.

2. Compare your answers with your partner. Read the text and find out if your guesses were correct.

TEXT 3

Higher education

Only about one third of school leavers receive post-school education, compared with over 80 per cent in Germany, France, the United States, and Japan. However, it must be borne in mind that once admitted to university relatively fewer (15 per cent) British students fail to complete their degree course.

Fourteen per cent of 18- and 19-year-olds enter full-time courses (degree or other advanced courses higher than A level), and it is hoped that this will rise to about 20 per cent by the end of the century. These courses are provided in universities, polytechnics, Scottish central institutions, colleges of higher (HE) and further (FE) education, and technical, art and agricultural colleges. In 1985/86, for example, a million students were enrolled in full-time courses, of whom 300,000 were at universities, 300,000 on advanced courses outside universities, and another 400,000 were on non-advanced vocational training and educational courses. In addition there were 3.2 million part-time students, of whom half a million were released by their employers. Over 90 per cent of full-time students receive grants to assist with their tuition and cost of living. However in September 1990, the government, while still providing tuition fees, froze the grant for cost of living expenses, and set up a new system whereby students were to take out loans to cover the shortfall.

Today there are forty-seven universities in Britain, compared with only seventeen in 1945. They fall into four broad categories: the ancient English foundations, the ancient Scottish ones, the 'redbrick' universities, and the 'plate-glass' ones. They are all private institutions, receiving direct grants from central government.

Oxford and Cambridge, founded in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries respectively, are easily the most famous of Britain's universities. Today 'Oxbridge', as the two together are known, educate less than one tenth of Britain's total university student population. But they continue to attract many of the best brains, and to mesmerise a greater number, partly on account of their prestige but also on account of the seductive beauty of many of their buildings and surroundings.

Both universities grew gradually, as federations of independent colleges most of which were founded in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In both universities, however, new colleges have been established, for example Green College, Oxford (1979) and Robinson College, Cambridge (1977).

Scotland boasts four ancient universities: Glasgow, Edinburgh, St Andrews and Aberdeen, all founded in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In the Scottish lowlands greater value was placed on education during the sixteenth and later centuries

There has been a considerable change since the 1960s in the proportion of undergraduate places taken by women. In the mid 1960s they were only 28 per cent of the intake, but had become 41 per cent by the early 1980s. But comparatively few still stay on for post-graduate work: 21 per cent in the mid 1960s, rising to 32 per cent by 1983. Moreover, there is still an unfortunate separation of the sexes in fields of chosen study. Almost certainly this arises from occupational tradition and social expectations. For example, in 1984 girls accounted for only 21 per cent of A level passes in physics, but 75 per cent in French. It is hardly surprising, either, that women took only 4 per cent of engineering and technology places on further education courses, yet 70 per cent of medical, health and welfare courses at this level. Caring for others is still a 'proper' career for women; building bridges, it seems, is not. Unless one believes women's brains to be better geared to medicine and men's to bridge-building, one must conclude that social expectations still hinder women from realising their potential.

During the 1980s many higher education institutions were forced to reduce their staff and facilities in order to operate within tighter funding limits. During the second half of the 1980s about 8,000 university posts were abolished or left vacant. A bitter debate arose about what universities were for. The government was determined that universities should serve the national interest, while many university educationists believed this denied the chance for self-expression, for them the true basis of all education. In fact, however, the cuts in funding hit the modern, often more technological, universities harder than the older more prestigious ones. As an example of the consequences, while France increased the number of mechanical engineering graduates by 50 per cent in the 1980s, Britain halved its output in only five years.

In 1988 the Education Reform Act established a new body, the Universities Funding Council, for disbursing government money to universities. This council may require universities to produce a certain number of graduates, or to produce a

certain number of qualified people in specific fields, particularly in science and technology. Universities and polytechnics fear they may be competing for students under pressure for stricter accounting and performance-rating at a time when, for demographic reasons, the numbers entering higher education are going to fall.

Polytechnics and other larger colleges, which had previously been administered by local authorities, were made independent and funded in a similar way.

1. Answer the following questions:

1. Is post-school education popular in Britain. Why?
2. What is 'Oxbridge'?
3. What are the most popular specialties with women? Is it the same in Russia?
4. Why were many higher education institutions forced to reduce their staff?
5. What is the Universities Funding Council?
6. Is higher education popular in Russia? Why?

2. Tell about one of British universities.

3. Essay. What is the purpose of education?

4. Project work. What changes would you introduce into the Russian system of higher education? Make a model of higher education in Russia. Make a presentation and comment on your model.

3.6. Социальное обеспечение, система здравоохранения. Британское судопроизводство. Британская полиция, её роль и особенности

TEXT 1

The system of justice

The system of justice in England and Wales, in both civil and criminal cases, is (as it is in North America) an adversarial system. In criminal cases there is no such thing as an examining magistrate who tries to discover the real truth about what happened. In formal terms it is not the business of any court to find out 'the truth'. Its job is simply to decide 'yes' or 'no' to a particular proposition (in criminal cases, that a certain person is guilty of a certain crime) after it has heard arguments and evidence from both sides (in criminal cases these sides are known as the defence and the prosecution).

There are basically two kinds of court. More than 90% of all cases are dealt with in magistrates' courts. Every town has one of these. In them, a panel of magistrates (usually three) passes judgement. In cases where they have decided

somebody is guilty of a crime, they can also impose a punishment. This can be imprisonment for up to a year, or it can be a fine, although if it is a person's 'first offence' and the crime is not serious, they often impose no punishment at all.

Magistrates' courts are another example of the importance of amateurism in British public life. Magistrates, who are also known as Justices of the Peace (JPs), are not trained lawyers. They are just ordinary people of good reputation who have been appointed to the job by a local committee. They do not get a salary or a fee for their work (though they get paid expenses). Inevitably, they tend to come from the wealthier sections of society and, in times past, their prejudices were very obvious. They were especially harsh, for instance, on people found guilty of poaching (hunting animals on private land), even though these people sometimes had to poach in order to put food on their families' tables. In modern times, however, some care is taken to make sure that JPs are recruited from as broad a section of society as possible.

Even serious criminal cases are first heard in a magistrate's court. However, in these cases, the JPs only need to decide that there is a *prima facie* case against the accused (in other words, that it is possible that he or she may be guilty). They then refer the case to a higher court. In most cases this will be a crown court, where a professional lawyer acts as the judge and the decision regarding guilt or innocence is taken by a jury. Juries consist of twelve people selected at random from the list of voters. They do not get paid for their services and are obliged to perform this duty. In order for a verdict to be reached, there must be agreement among at least ten of them. If this does not happen, the judge has to declare a mistrial and the case must start all over again with a different jury. A convicted person may appeal to the Court of Criminal Appeal (generally known just as the Appeal Court) in London either to have the conviction quashed (i.e. the jury's previous verdict is overruled and they are pronounced 'not guilty') or to have the sentence (i.e. punishment) reduced. The highest court of all in Britain is the House of Lords.

The duty of the judge during a trial is to act as the referee while the prosecution and defence put their cases and question witnesses, and to decide what evidence is admissible and what is not (what can or can't be taken into account by the jury). It is also, of course, the judge's job to impose a punishment (known as 'pronouncing sentence') on those found guilty of crimes.

Answer the questions:

1. There are two kinds of court in Britain. Name them. What are the differences between them?
2. Make the list of differences and similarities between the Russian and the British system of justice

TEXT 2

The British Police

Twenty-five years ago, the British police force was a source of great pride. Unlike police in almost every other country, the British policeman enjoyed a trusted, respected and friendly relationship with the public. The 'bobby on the beat' made it his business to learn his neighbourhood. In return, the public placed a high level of trust in his integrity. This is probably a rosy and idealised view of the past. But it was a source of pride that almost alone in the police world, the British bobby was unarmed. As Ralf Dahrendorf says, "It is hard to exaggerate the significance of the fact that the British police did not, and very largely do not, carry weapons." The British police are probably still among the finest in the world, but clearly there are serious and growing problems. A survey commissioned by three authoritative police associations at the end of the 1980s reported that one in five people believe that the police use unnecessary force on arrest, falsify statements, plant evidence and use violence in police stations. It also reported that only 43 per cent of white people interviewed and only 29 per cent of blacks believed the police treated all people fairly.

In such circumstances there is clearly a critical need to rebuild public confidence. But what should be done? The problem is partly structural. In 1990 there were still fifty-two separate police forces operating in different parts of the country. Each force is answerable to a local police authority, composed of magistrates and local councillors. In the case of London's Metropolitan Police (the 'Met'), the authority is the Home Secretary himself. But police authorities have very limited powers. They can appoint the chief officer (the Chief Constable), subject to Home Office approval, and they may ask questions and advise concerning police work.

In practice, however, each Chief Constable is responsible for all operational and administrative decisions. The police authority cannot give direct instructions on such matters, nor can the Home Secretary (except in the cases of London and Northern Ireland). In 1966 a judge ruled that a Chief Constable, like any police officer, cannot be told which particular laws to enforce or refrain from enforcing. Traditionally Chief Constables have disliked attempts at local control even more than those of central government. The result is that except in the case of police violation of the law, or a case of gross negligence, it is extremely difficult for elected representatives at the local level to exercise direct control. In the 1984-85 miners' strike, for example, the local police authorities were powerless to moderate the aggressive tactics adopted by the police to defeat the miners.

In addition, until 1987 the police investigated alleged police malpractice themselves. Although a Police Complaints Authority now exists, it is not fully independent. It must rely on officers from one police force to investigate the malpractice of another. It is widely believed that police loyalty still prevents

effective and impartial internal police investigation. Following the Brixton riots, Lord Scarman recommended that the police should not be allowed to investigate allegations of police misconduct. This recommendation awaits full implementation.

Because of such limitations, democratic control of the police in practice does not properly exist. Concern at the political use of the police increased during the 1980s with the frequent political use of police to maintain public order in controversial situations, for example strikes and demonstrations against government policy.

There has also been growing concern about the other police function: the control of crime. Until 1984 no British citizen had any formal protection against police intimidation except customary ones, the right to silence and the right to see a solicitor. The right to silence in Northern Ireland was removed in 1988. Since 1984 there have been statutory codes of practice to be followed in the arrest and questioning of suspects, including the requirement to tape-record (for court use) all interrogations. This should improve things but it needs to be remembered, in the words of one ex-policeman, that "cells and detention rooms are known as places where officers can free themselves from legal and formal organisational rules".

Until 1986 the English police were responsible not only for the detection of crime but also for prosecution. They often prosecuted in cases where the evidence was not strong enough to obtain a conviction. In 1978, for example, half of all those pleading not guilty to criminal charges were acquitted in court. Many, perhaps around 45,000

cases yearly, were prosecuted where a 'formal caution' would have had a deterrent effect. Since 1986 an independent Crown Prosecution Service for England and Wales has followed Scotland's longstanding practice of choosing when to prosecute. This has led to fewer prosecutions, but a higher rate of conviction.

An improved code of conduct, and changes in the administration of criminal law, help the police improve their performance. However, in an age of increasing popular violence and disrespect for law and order, the great challenge for the police is to recapture the respect of the public. Frustrating as this may be for the police, the challenge is to show greater restraint rather than aggression under provocation. It is also to shift the emphasis back from the more exciting image of armed or armoured law enforcement to a softer image of policing in the form of the friendly but firm neighbourhood bobby.

Answer the question. What are the differences and similarities between the British Police and the Russian Milicia?

TEXT 3

The medical profession

Doctors generally have the same very high status in Britain that they have throughout the world. Specialist doctors have greater prestige than ordinary GPs, with hospital consultants ranking highest. These specialists are allowed to work part-time for the NHS and spend the rest of their time earning big fees from private patients. Some have a surgery in Harley Street in London, conventionally the sign that a doctor is one of the best. However, the difference in status between specialists and ordinary GPs is not as marked as it is in most other countries. At medical school, it is not automatically assumed that a brilliant student will become a specialist. GPs are not in any way regarded as second-class. The idea of the family doctor with personal knowledge of the circumstances of his or her patients was established in the days when only rich people could afford to pay for the services of a doctor. But the NHS capitation system (see above) has encouraged this idea to spread to the population as a whole.

Most GPs work in a 'group practice'. That is, they work in the same building as several other GPs. This allows them to share facilities such as waiting rooms and receptionists. Each patient is registered with just one doctor in the practice, but this system means that, when his or her doctor is unavailable, the patient can be seen by one of the doctor's colleagues.

The status of nurses in Britain may be traced to their origins in the nineteenth century. The Victorian reformer Florence Nightingale became a national heroine for her organization of nursing and hospital facilities during the Crimean War in the 1850s. Because of her, nurses have an almost saintly image in the minds of the British public, being widely admired for their caring work. However, this image suggests that they are doing their work out of the goodness of their hearts rather than to earn a living wage. As a result, the nursing profession has always been rather badly paid and there is a very high turnover of nursing staff. Most nurses, the vast majority of whom are still women, give up their jobs after only a few years. The style of the British nursing profession can also be traced back to its origins. Born at a time of war, it is distinctively military in its uniforms, its clear-cut separation of ranks, its insistence on rigid procedural rules and its tendency to place a high value on group loyalty.

Answer the question. Are doctors and nurses in Russia have the same status as in the UK?

3.7. Выдающиеся исторические деятели

Pre-Reading activities. Discuss the following questions:

1. Which of the famous names in popular British history do you know?
2. Have you heard about Henry VIII, Elizabeth I, Isaac Newton or Charles Darwin? What are they famous for?
3. How can the private life of a monarch / president / ... influence his / her political decisions? Recall such cases in the history of your country.

TEXT 1

The Kings and Queens

Tudor, name of the dynasty that occupied the throne of England from 1485 to 1603. The house was founded by the Welsh nobleman Owen Tudor, who married Catherine of Valois, the widow of the English king Henry V. Their eldest son, Edmund Tudor, married Margaret Beaufort, a descendant of John of Gaunt, son of King Edward III. In 1485 Edmund and Margaret's son, Henry, killed Richard III of the house of York and became Henry VII, the first Tudor monarch. The successive Tudor sovereigns were Henry VIII and his son and two daughters, Edward VI, Mary I, and Elizabeth I; the three died childless. The Tudors reunited the country after a period of civil strife and made the English church independent of the pope. They were followed in royal succession by the Stuart family.

The century of Tudor rule is often thought of as a most glorious period in English history. Henry VII built the foundation of a wealthy nation state and a powerful monarchy. His son Henry VIII, kept a magnificent court, and made the church in England truly English by breaking away from the Roman Catholic Church. Finally, his daughter Elizabeth brought glory to the new state by defeating the powerful navy of Spain, the greatest European power of the time. During the Tudor age England experienced one of the greatest artistic periods in its history.

There is, however, a less glorious view of the Tudor century. Henry VIII wasted the wealth saved by his father. Elizabeth weakened the quality of government by selling official posts. She did this to avoid asking Parliament for money. And although her government tried to deal with the problem of poor and homeless people at a time when prices rose much faster than wages, its laws and actions were often cruel in effect.

Henry VIII

Henry VIII (1491-1547), king of England (1509-1547). Henry VIII had six wives, fought numerous wars in Europe, and even aspired to become Holy Roman Emperor in order to extend his control to Europe. He ruthlessly increased the power of royal government, using Parliament to sanction his actions. Henry ruled through powerful ministers who, like his six wives, were never safe in their

positions. His greatest achievement was to initiate the Protestant Reformation in England. He rejected the authority of the pope and the Roman Catholic Church, confiscated church lands, and promoted religious reformers to power. Henry VIII is one of the most well-known monarchs in English history, chiefly because he took six wives during his life. It was during his reign that the Reformation took place. In the 1530s, Henry used Parliament to pass laws which swept away the power of the Roman Church in England. His quarrel with Rome was nothing to do with doctrine (it was because he wanted to be free to marry again and to appoint who he wished as leaders of the Church in England). In the same decade, he had a law passed which demanded complete adherence to Catholic belief and practice. He had also previously written a polemic against Protestantism, for which the pope gave him the title *Fidei Defensor* (Defender of the Faith). The initials FD still appear on British coins today.

Elizabeth I

Elizabeth I (1533-1603), queen of England and Ireland (1558-1603), daughter of Henry VIII and his second wife, Anne Boleyn. Elizabeth was the longest-reigning English monarch in nearly two centuries and the first woman to successfully occupy the English throne. Called *Gloriana* and *Good Queen Bess*, Elizabeth enjoyed enormous popularity during her life and became an even greater legend after her death. Elizabeth's reign was marked by her effective use of Parliament and the Privy Council, a small advisory body of the important state officials, and by the development of legal institutions in the English counties. Elizabeth firmly established Protestantism in England, encouraged English enterprise and commerce, and defended the nation against the powerful Spanish naval force known as the Spanish Armada. Her reign was noted for the English Renaissance, an outpouring of poetry and drama led by William Shakespeare, Edmund Spenser, and Christopher Marlowe that remains unsurpassed in English literary history. She was the last of the Tudor monarchs, never marrying or producing an heir, and was succeeded by her cousin, James VI of Scotland.

Elizabeth I, daughter of Henry VIII, was the first of three long-reigning queens in British history (the other two are Queen Victoria and Elizabeth II). During her long reign she established, by skilful diplomacy, a reasonable degree of internal stability in a firmly Protestant England, allowing the growth of a spirit of patriotism and general confidence. She never married, but used its possibility as a diplomatic tool. She became known as 'the virgin queen'. The area which later became the state of Virginia in the USA was named after her by one of the many English explorers of the time (Sir Walter Raleigh).

Historians describe Elizabeth as an intelligent, courageous, and determined woman. She could read Latin and Greek and spoke French and Italian fluently. Besides, she had a talent for wise governing. Among her other characteristics we can mention her self-confidence, caution, vanity and thrift. She

inherited her father's temper: she could swear at her bishops and throw her slippers at the diplomats. At the same time she was cautious. Her advantage was that she chose very good advisers. For example, her principal minister William Cecil, Lord Burghley, served her truthfully until his death. She did not act without thinking. Very often she thought and waited and listened to the advice of her ministers and only then made decisions.

Mary, Queen of Scots

Though Elizabeth I was a good monarch there were some people who wanted to put a Catholic on the English throne. The best pretender to this position was the Scottish queen, Mary Stuart. She was a great-granddaughter of Henry VII. She married King Francis II of France in 1558. In 1559 her husband died and Mary had to return to Scotland. In 1565 Mary married her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley. In 1566 Lord Darnley with his men murdered Mary's secretary David Riccio, because he was her lover. A year later Darnley went to his house in Edinburgh. At night the house was blown up. People began to say that it was done by James Hepburn, earl of Bothwell, a new lover of Mary. Two months later the Queen of Scots married Bothwell, who was a Protestant. The Scottish nation was outraged and Mary had to abdicate from the throne in favour of her baby son James. In 1568 Mary fled to England, but Elizabeth I took her a prisoner.

Mary spent 19 years in prison. Several times she tried to plot against Elizabeth I but the Queen of England was very cautious, and none of the plots were realized. Mary was still a danger for Elizabeth. But still she did not want to execute her until Mary named Philip, King of Spain, her heir to the English throne. With this claim Philip decided to invade England. Elizabeth did not need Mary any more, and in 1587 Mary Queen of Scots was executed.

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Who was the beginner of the Tudor dynasty?
2. What title was Henry VIII awarded with by the pope of Rome?
3. What reform did Henry VIII carry out?
4. What do you know about Henry VIII's private life?
5. Why was Elizabeth left unharmed during the reign of Bloody Mary?
6. What were Elizabeth's strengths?
7. Why did Elizabeth avoid getting married?

Exercise 2. Make the crossword puzzle using these sentences.

1. The first British colony in America.
2. The monarch who ruled for 44 years.
3. Queen of Scots.
4. The founder of the first British colony in America.
5. The man whom Elizabeth I loved all her life.

6. The country which was involved into war with England in 1588.
7. Elizabeth's principal minister.

Exercise 3. Test yourself.

1. Elizabeth I came to power in
 - a) 1588
 - b) 1603
 - c) 1558.
2. Elizabeth I ruled for
 - a) 44 years
 - b) 25 years
 - c) 55 years.
3. Elizabeth I was daughter of Henry VIII and
 - a) Catherine of Aragon
 - b) Anne of Cleves
 - c) Anne Boleyn.
4. In 1588 England fought against
 - a) the Netherlands
 - b) Spain
 - c) France.
5. The founder of Virginia was
 - a) William Cecil
 - b) Walter Raleigh
 - c) Robert Dudley.
6. Mary Queen of Scots was Elizabeth's
 - a) cousin
 - b) mother
 - c) sister-in-law.
7. Mary Stuart's son was
 - a) Henry
 - b) Edward
 - c) James.
8. Elizabeth died at the age of
 - a) 70
 - b) 50
 - c) 60.

TEXT 2

Inventors and scientists.

Britain has been a world leader in science and technology, and since the Industrial Revolution the nation has been a pioneer in the use of machinery. The profession of modern engineering emerged from the work of the skilled craftsmen of the 18th and 19th centuries. The British have appreciated and encouraged inventors and scientists, and in pure science, the country has produced a steady stream of solid research. More than 70 British citizens have been awarded the Nobel Prize in science, second only to the United States.

Modern science owes much to 16th-century philosopher and statesman Francis Bacon, whose theories of inductive reasoning and experimentation laid the foundation of the scientific method. Sir Isaac Newton, a scientific genius in physics and mathematics, formulated the laws of motion and gravity that were not surpassed until Albert Einstein's theories in the early 20th century. Michael Faraday, another outstanding figure in British science during the 19th century, made important discoveries in chemistry and electricity, specifically electromagnetic induction. His work led to the creation of the electric generator. Biologist Charles Darwin, who developed the theory of evolution through natural selection, radically influenced modern science and thought. British scientists have also made striking contributions to the field of medicine. Surgeon Joseph Lister introduced antiseptic surgery in the 1860s, and in 1928 Sir Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin, the first of the antibiotic medicines. In physics, several British scientists carried on atomic research, most notably Ernest Rutherford, Sir Joseph John Thomson, and Sir John Douglas Cockcroft.

Michael Faraday

Michael Faraday (1791-1867), British physicist and chemist, best known for his discoveries of electromagnetic induction and of the laws of electrolysis. Faraday was born on September 22, 1791, in Newington, Surrey, England. He was the son of a blacksmith and received little formal education. While apprenticed to a bookbinder in London, he read books on scientific subjects and experimented with electricity. In 1812 he attended a series of lectures given by the British chemist Sir Humphry Davy and forwarded the notes he took at these lectures to Davy, together with a request for employment. Davy employed Faraday as an assistant in his chemical laboratory at the Royal Institution and in 1813 took Faraday with him on an extended tour of Europe. Faraday was elected to the Royal Society in 1824 and the following year was appointed director of the laboratory of the Royal Institution. In 1833 he succeeded Davy as professor of chemistry at the institution. Two years later he was given a pension of 300 pounds per year for life. Faraday was the recipient of many scientific honors, including the Royal and Rumford

medals of the Royal Society; he was also offered the presidency of the society but declined the honor. He died on August 25, 1867, near Hampton Court, Surrey.

The research that established Faraday as the foremost experimental scientist of his day was in the fields of electricity and magnetism. In 1821 he plotted the magnetic field around a conductor carrying an electric current; the existence of the magnetic field had first been observed by the Danish physicist Hans Christian Oersted in 1819. In 1831 Faraday followed this accomplishment with the discovery of electromagnetic induction and in the same year demonstrated the induction of one electric current by another. During this same period of research he investigated the phenomena of electrolysis and discovered two fundamental laws: that the amount of chemical action produced by an electrical current in an electrolyte is proportional to the amount of electricity passing through the electrolyte; and that the amount of a substance deposited from an electrolyte by the action of a current is proportional to the chemical equivalent weight of the substance. Faraday also established the principle that different dielectric substances have different specific inductive capacities.

In experimenting with magnetism, Faraday made two discoveries of great importance; one was the existence of diamagnetism, and the other was the fact that a magnetic field has the power to rotate the plane of polarized light passing through certain types of glass.

Isaac Newton

Isaac Newton (1642-1727), English physicist, mathematician, and natural philosopher, considered one of the most important scientists of all time. Newton formulated laws of universal gravitation and motion—laws that explain how objects move on Earth as well as through the heavens. He established the modern study of optics—or the behavior of light—and built the first reflecting telescope. His mathematical insights led him to invent the area of mathematics called calculus (which German mathematician Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz also developed independently). Newton stated his ideas in several published works, two of which, *Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica* (Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy, 1687) and *Opticks* (1704), are considered among the greatest scientific works ever produced. Newton's revolutionary contributions explained the workings of a large part of the physical world in mathematical terms, and they suggested that science may provide explanations for other phenomena as well.

James Watt

James Watt (1736-1819), Scottish inventor and mechanical engineer, renowned for his improvements of the steam engine.

Watt was born on January 19, 1736, in Greenock, Scotland. He worked as a mathematical-instrument maker from the age of 19 and soon became interested in

improving the steam engines, invented by the English engineers Thomas Savery and Thomas Newcomen, which were used at the time to pump water from mines.

The misconception that Watt was the actual inventor of the steam engine arose from the fundamental nature of his contributions to its development. The centrifugal or flyball governor, which he invented in 1788, and which automatically regulated the speed of an engine, is of particular interest today. It is said that James Watt developed his idea for the steam engine by watching a boiling cattle in his mother's kitchen and seeing how the steam pushed things out! The electrical unit, the watt, was named in his honor. Watt was also a renowned civil engineer, making several surveys of canal routes. He invented, in 1767, an attachment that adapted telescopes for use in measurement of distances. Watt died in Heathfield, England, on August 19, 1819.

Alexander Fleming

Sir Alexander Fleming (1881-1955), British bacteriologist and Nobel laureate, best known for his discovery of penicillin. Born near Darvel, Scotland, and educated at Saint Mary's Hospital Medical School of the University of London, he served as professor of bacteriology at St. Mary's Hospital Medical School from 1928 to 1948, when he became professor emeritus. Fleming conducted outstanding research in bacteriology, chemotherapy, and immunology. In 1922 he discovered lysozyme, an antiseptic found in tears, body secretions, albumen, and certain fish plants. His discovery of penicillin came about accidentally in 1928 in the course of research on influenza. His observation that the mold contaminating one of his culture plates had destroyed the bacteria laid the basis for the development of penicillin therapy. Fleming was knighted in 1944. In 1945 he shared the Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine with Australian scientist Howard Walter Florey and German-British pathologist Ernst Boris Chain for their contributions to the development of penicillin.

Charles Darwin

Charles Darwin (1809-1882), British scientist, who laid the foundation of modern evolutionary theory with his concept of the development of all forms of life through the slow-working process of natural selection. His work was of major influence on the life and earth sciences and on modern thought in general. Born in Shrewsbury, Shropshire, England, on February 12, 1809, Darwin was the fifth child of a wealthy and sophisticated English family. His maternal grandfather was the successful china and pottery entrepreneur Josiah Wedgwood; his paternal grandfather was the well-known 18th-century physician and savant Erasmus Darwin. After graduating from the elite school at Shrewsbury in 1825, young Darwin went to the University of Edinburgh to study medicine. In 1827 he dropped out of medical school and entered the University of Cambridge, in preparation for becoming a clergyman of the Church of England. There he met two stellar figures:

Adam Sedgwick, a geologist, and John Stevens Henslow, a naturalist. Henslow not only helped build Darwin's self-confidence but also taught his student to be a meticulous and painstaking observer of natural phenomena and collector of specimens. After graduating from Cambridge in 1831, the 22-year-old Darwin was taken aboard the English survey ship HMS Beagle, largely on Henslow's recommendation, as an unpaid naturalist on a scientific expedition around the world.

After returning to England in 1836, Darwin began recording his ideas about changeability of species in his Notebooks on the Transmutation of Species. He worked on his theory and other natural history projects. (Darwin was independently wealthy and never had to earn an income.) In 1839 he married his first cousin, Emma Wedgwood, and soon after, moved to a small estate, Down House, outside London. There he and his wife had ten children, three of whom died in infancy.

Darwin's theory was first announced in 1858 in a paper presented at the same time as one by Alfred Russel Wallace, a young naturalist who had come independently to the theory of natural selection. Darwin's complete theory was published in 1859, in *On the Origin of Species*. Often referred to as the "book that shook the world," the *Origin* sold out on the first day of publication and subsequently went through six editions.

Darwin's theory of evolution by natural selection is essentially that the young born to any species intensely compete for survival. Those young that survive to produce the next generation tend to embody favorable natural variations (however slight the advantage may be)—the process of natural selection—and these variations are passed on by heredity. Therefore, each generation will improve adaptively over the preceding generations, and this gradual and continuous process is the source of the evolution of species. Natural selection is only part of Darwin's vast conceptual scheme; he also introduced the concept that all related organisms are descended from common ancestors. Moreover, he provided additional support for the older concept that the earth itself is not static but evolving.

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions.

1. Who were the most popular scientists and inventors of Britain?
2. What is Michael Faraday famous for?
3. What laws did Newton formulate?
4. Do you know any Newton's inventions?
5. Who was Alexander Fleming? What is he famous for?
6. Where was Charles Darwin born?
7. What are the main ideas of Darwin's theory of evolution?
8. What is James Watt famous for?

Exercise 2. Choose the correct word(s) to complete each sentence.

1. Sir Alexander Fleming discovered penicillin / aspirin, the first of the antibiotic medicines.
2. Michael Faraday is British / French physicist and chemist.
3. Newton formulated laws of universal gravitation and motion—laws that explain how objects move / don't move on Earth as well as through the heavens.
4. After graduating from Cambridge in 1831, the 22-year-old Darwin was taken aboard the English survey ship HMS Beagle as a / an paid / unpaid naturalist on a scientific expedition around the world.
5. He provided additional support for the older concept that the earth itself is / is not static but evolving.

Exercise 3. Now read the text 2 again and decide if the following statements are True or False. Make a note of the part of the text which helps you decide.

1. Sir Isaac Newton, a scientific genius in physics and mathematics, formulated the laws of motion and gravity that were not surpassed until Albert Einstein's theories in the early 20th century.
2. Faraday was elected to the Royal Society in 1826 and the following year was appointed director of the laboratory of the Royal Institution.
3. In 1945 only Alexander Fleming was awarded by the Nobel Prize in physiology or medicine.
4. His maternal grandfather was the well-known 18th-century physician and savant Erasmus Darwin.
5. Charles Darwin's complete theory was published in 1859, often referred to as the "book that shook the world".

3.8. Религия. Верования и нравы, ценности, этические нормы, стереотипы, юмор Великобритании, различных стран изучаемого языка

TEXT 1

Religion in Britain

Only 17 per cent of the adult population of Britain belongs to one of the Christian churches, and this proportion continues to decline. Yet the regional variation is revealing. In England only 13 per cent of the adult population are members of a church. The further one travels from London, however, the greater the attendance: in Wales 23 per cent, in Scotland 37 per cent and in Northern Ireland no fewer than 80 per cent.

Today there is complete freedom of practice, regardless of religion or sect. But it was not always so. Until the mid nineteenth century, those who did not belong to the Church of England, the official 'established' or state Church, were barred from some public offices. The established Church still plays a powerful role in national life, in spite of the relatively small numbers of people who are active members of it.

Answer the question. Is there freedom of religion in Russia?

TEXT 2

The Church of England

There are two established or state Churches in Britain: the Church of England, or Anglican Church as it is sometimes called, and the Church of Scotland.

In 1533 the English king, Henry VIII, had broken away from Rome and declared himself head of the Church in England. His reason had been purely political: the Pope's refusal to allow him to divorce his wife, who had failed to produce a son. Apart from this administrative break, the Church at first remained more Catholic than Protestant. However, during the next two centuries when religion was a vital political issue in Europe, the Church of England became much more Protestant in belief as well as organisation.

Ever since 1534 the monarch has been Head of the Church of England. No one may take the throne who is not a member of the Church of England. For any Protestant this would be unlikely to be a problem, since the Church of England already includes a wide variety of Protestant

belief. However, if the monarch or the next in line decided to marry a Roman Catholic it would cause a constitutional crisis. For the past 300 years that crisis has not arisen, but it has always been understood that if such a marriage went ahead, the monarch or heir would have to give up their claim to the throne. The monarch is crowned by the senior Anglican cleric, the Archbishop of Canterbury.

As Head of the Church of England, the monarch appoints the archbishops, bishops and deans of the Church, on the recommendation of the Prime Minister, who might well not be an Anglican. Prime Minister Thatcher, incidentally, became an Anglican, having been brought up as a Methodist. Many in England's ruling establishment still feel it appropriate to belong to the state Church. The Prime Minister makes a recommendation from two nominee candidates, put forward by a special Crown Appointments Commission (composed of bishops, clergy and lay members of the Church). All Anglican clergy must take an oath of allegiance to the Crown, a difficult proposition for any priest who is a republican at heart. Thus Church and Crown in England are closely entwined, with mutual bonds of responsibility.

The most senior spiritual leaders of the Church of England are the Archbishop of Canterbury, who is 'Primate of All England', and the Archbishop of York, who is 'Primate of England', a subtle distinction. They are head of the two ecclesiastical provinces of England, Canterbury and York. These two provinces are divided into forty-two dioceses, each under the charge of a bishop.

The senior bishops are those of London, Durham and Winchester, but there is no guarantee of promotion according to seniority. George Carey, for example, the present (103rd) Archbishop, was previously Bishop of Bath and Wells, no longer considered a senior bishopric. Because of the growth in population, some bishops are assisted by deputies assigned to a geographical part of the diocese. These are 'suffragan' bishops. Each diocese is composed of parishes, the basic unit of the Church's ministry. Each parish has a vicar, or sometimes a team of vicars, if it includes more than one church.

The Archbishop of Canterbury is head of the Anglican 'Communion'. This Communion is composed of the various independent Churches which have grown out of the Church of England in various parts of the world. In fact England accounts for only two of the twenty-eight provinces of the Anglican Church. In theory, about 40 per cent of the English might say they were members of the Church of England. Far fewer actually ever attend church and only 1.2 million regularly attend, a small proportion of the 70 million active Anglicans worldwide. More Nigerians, for example, than English are regular offenders of the Anglican Church. Within the worldwide Anglican Communion are some famous people, for example Desmond Tutu, the Archbishop of Capetown, and George Bush, who became President of the United States in 1989. Indeed, it is said that most of the 'ruling establishment' of Washington belong to the Episcopal Church, the Anglican Church of the United States. The Scottish Episcopal Church, the Church in Wales and the Church in Ireland are members of the Anglican Communion, but are not 'established' Churches and have small memberships of not more than about 100,000 each.

Once in every ten years the Archbishop of Canterbury invites all the bishops of the Anglican Communion to a conference at Lambeth in London to exchange views and debate issues of concern. Rather like the Commonwealth Conference, the Lambeth Conference provides an opportunity for the sister Churches from every continent to meet and share their different concerns and perspectives. The last conference was in 1988. Recently it has been suggested that either the Archbishop of Canterbury should represent one of the member Churches of the Anglican Communion which is larger than the Church of England, or that the present duties of the Archbishop of Canterbury should be divided into two separate posts, one to preside over the Anglican Communion worldwide, and the other to be concerned solely with the Church of England.

Answer the question. How many religions and confessions are there in your country?

Pre-reading activity. The British, like the people of every country, tend to be attributed with certain characteristics which are supposedly typical. Can you comment on several stereotyped images of the British.

TEXT 3

Stereotypes and change

Societies change over time while their reputations lag behind. Many things which are often regarded as typically British derive from books, songs or plays which were written a long time ago and which are no longer representative of modern life. One example of this is the popular belief that Britain is a 'land of tradition'. This is what most tourist brochures claim. The claim is based on what can be seen in public life and on centuries of political continuity. And at this level - the level of public life - it is undoubtedly true. The annual ceremony of the state opening of Parliament, for instance, carefully follows customs which are centuries old. So does the military ceremony of 'trooping the colour'. Likewise, the changing of the guard outside Buckingham Palace never changes.

However, in their private everyday lives, the British as individuals are probably less inclined to follow tradition than are the people of most other countries. There are very few ancient customs that are followed by the majority of families on special occasions. The country has fewer local parades or processions with genuine folk roots than most other countries have. The English language has fewer sayings or proverbs that are in common everyday use than many other languages do. The British are too individualistic for these things. In addition, it should be noted that they are the most enthusiastic video-watching people in the world - the very opposite of a traditional pastime!

There are many examples of supposedly typical British habits which are simply not typical any more. For example, the stereotyped image of the London 'city gent' includes the wearing of a bowler hat. In fact, this type of hat has not been commonly worn for a long time. Food and drink provide other examples. The traditional 'British' (or 'English') breakfast is a large 'fry-up' (see chapter 20) preceded by cereal with milk and followed by toast, butter and marmalade, all washed down with lots of tea. In fact, only about 10% of the people in Britain actually have this sort of breakfast. Two-thirds have cut out the fry-up and just have the cereal, tea and toast. The rest have even less. What the vast majority of British people have in the mornings is therefore much closer to what they call a 'continental' (i.e. European) breakfast than it is to a 'British' one. The image of the British as a nation of tea-drinkers is another stereotype which is somewhat out of date. It is true that it is still prepared in a distinctive way (strong and with milk),

but more coffee than tea is now bought in the country's shops. As for the tradition of afternoon tea with biscuits, scones, sandwiches or cake, this is a minority activity, largely confined to retired people and the leisured upper-middle class (although preserved in tea shops in tourist resorts).

Even when a British habit conforms to the stereotype, the wrong conclusions can sometimes be drawn from it. The supposed British love of queuing is an example. Yes, British people do form queues whenever they are waiting for something, but this does not mean that they enjoy it. In 1992, a survey found that the average wait to pay in a British supermarket was three minutes and twenty-three seconds, and that the average wait to be served in a bank was two minutes and thirty-three seconds. You might think that these times sound very reasonable. But The Sunday Times newspaper did not think so. It referred to these figures as a 'problem'. Some banks now promise to serve their customers 'within two minutes'. It would therefore seem wrong to conclude that their habit of queuing shows that the British are a patient people. Apparently, the British hate having to wait and have less patience than people in many other countries.

English versus British

Because English culture dominates the cultures of the other three nations of the British Isles, everyday habits, attitudes and values among the peoples of the four nations are very similar. However, they are not identical, and what is often regarded as typically British may in fact be only typically English. This is especially true with regard to one notable characteristic - anti-intellectualism. Among many people in Britain, there exists a suspicion of intelligence, education and 'high culture'. Teachers and academic staff, although respected, do not have as high a status as they do in most other countries. Nobody normally proclaims their academic qualifications or title to the world at large. No professor would expect, or want, to be addressed as 'Professor' on any but the most formal occasion. There are large sections of both the upper and working class in Britain who, traditionally at least, have not encouraged their children to go to university. This lack of enthusiasm for education is certainly decreasing. Nevertheless, it is still unusual for parents to arrange extra private tuition for their children, even among those who can easily afford it.

Anti-intellectual attitudes are held consciously only by a small proportion of the population, but an indication of how deep they run in society is that they are reflected in the English language. To refer to a person as somebody who 'gets all their ideas from books' is to speak of them negatively. The word 'clever' often has negative connotations. It suggests someone who uses trickery, a person who cannot quite be trusted (as in the expression 'too clever by half').

Evidence of this attitude can be found in all four nations of the British Isles. However, it is probably better seen as a specifically English characteristic and not a British one. The Scottish have always placed a high value on education for all

classes. The Irish of all classes place a high value on being quick, ready and able with words. The Welsh are famous for exporting teachers to other parts of Britain and beyond.

Multiculturalism

The third reason for caution about generalizations relates to the large-scale immigration to Britain from places outside the British Isles in the twentieth century. In its cities at least, Britain is a multicultural society. There are areas of London, for example, in which a distinctively Indian way of life predominates, with Indian shops, Indian clothes, Indian languages. Because in the local schools up to 90% of the pupils may be Indian, a distinctively Indian style of learning tends to take place.

These 'new British' people have brought widely differing sets of attitudes with them. For example, while some seem to care no more about education for their children than people in traditional English culture, others seem to care about it a great deal more.

However, the divergence from indigenous British attitudes in new British communities is constantly narrowing. These communities sometimes have their own newspapers but none have their own TV stations as they do in the United States. There, the numbers in such communities are larger and the physical space between them and other communities is greater, so that it is possible for people to live their whole lives in such communities without ever really learning English. This hardly ever happens in Britain.

It is therefore still possible to talk about British characteristics in general. In fact, the new British have made their own contribution to British life and attitudes. They have probably helped to make people more informal; they have changed the nature of the 'corner shop'; the most popular, well-attended festival in the whole of Britain is the annual Notting Hill Carnival in London at the end of August, which is of Caribbean inspiration and origin.

Conservatism

The British have few living folk traditions and are too individualistic to have the same everyday habits as each other. However, this does not mean that they like change. They don't. They may not behave in traditional ways, but they like symbols of tradition and stability. For example, there are some very untraditional attitudes and habits with regard to the family in modern Britain. Nevertheless, politicians often cite their enthusiasm for 'traditional family values' (both parents married and living together, parents as the main source of authority for children etc) as a way of winning support.

In general, the British value continuity over modernity for its own sake. They do not consider it especially smart to live in a new house and, in fact, there is prestige in living in an obviously old one. They have a general sentimental

attachment to older, supposedly safer, times. Their Christmas cards usually depict scenes from past centuries; they like their pubs to look old (see chapter 20); they were reluctant to change their system of currency .

Moreover, a look at children's reading habits suggests that this attitude is not going to change. Publishers try hard to make their books for children up-to-date. But perhaps they needn't try so hard. In 1992 the two most popular children's writers were noticeably un-modern (they were both, in fact, dead). The most popular of all was Roald Dahl, whose fantasy stories are set in a rather old-fashioned world. The second most popular writer was Enid Blyton, whose stories take place in a comfortable white middle-class world before the 1960s. They contain no references to other races or classes and mention nothing more modern than a radio. In other words, they are mostly irrelevant to modern life.

Being different

The British can be particularly and stubbornly conservative about anything which is perceived as a token of Britishness. In these matters, their conservatism can combine with their individualism; they are rather proud of being different. It is, for example, very difficult to imagine that they will ever agree to change from driving on the left-hand side of the road to driving on the right. It doesn't matter that nobody can think of any intrinsic advantage in driving on the left. Why should they change just to be like everyone else? Indeed, as far as they are concerned, not being like everyone else is a good reason not to change.

Developments at European Union (EU) level which might cause a change in some everyday aspect of British life are usually greeted with suspicion and hostility. The case of double-decker buses is an example. Whenever an EU committee makes a recommendation about standardizing the size and shape of these, it provokes warnings from British bus builders about 'the end of the double-decker bus as we know it'. The British public is always ready to listen to such predictions of doom.

Systems of measurement are another example. The British government has been trying for years and years to promote the metric system and to get British people to use the same scales that are used nearly everywhere else in the world. But it has had only limited success. British manufacturers are obliged to give the weight of their tins and packets in kilos and grams. But everybody in Britain still shops in pounds and ounces. The weather forecasters on the television use the Celsius scale of temperature. But nearly everybody still thinks in Fahrenheit. British people continue to measure distances, amounts of liquid and themselves using scales of measurement that are not used anywhere else in Europe. Even the use of the 24-hour clock is comparatively restricted.

British governments sometimes seem to promote this pride in being different. In 1993 the managers of a pub in Slough (west of London) started selling glasses of beer which they called 'swifts' and 'larges' , smaller amounts than the

traditional British equivalents of half a pint and a pint. You might think that the authorities would have been pleased at this voluntary effort to adopt European habits. But they were not. British law demands that draught beer be sold in pints and half-pints only. The pub was fined £3,100 by a court and was ordered to stop selling the 'continental' measures. British governments have so far resisted pressure from business people to adopt Central European Time, remaining stubbornly one hour behind, and they continue to start their financial year not, as other countries do, at the beginning of the calendar year but at the beginning of April!

Answer the question. Are there any certain characteristics which are supposedly typical for the Russians?

Глава 4. Культура и искусство Великобритании (Модуль 3)

4.1. Литература. Отдельные литературные произведения, афоризмы, пословицы, их связь с национальной картиной мира и национальными концептами

Pre-reading activity:

Can you remember any rhymes in Russian which you were told in your early childhood? Which of them are originally Russian and which are interpreted into Russian?

Reading

Read two rhymes and a limerick and learn them by heart:

*Humpty-Dumpty sat on a wall,
Humpty-Dumpty had a great fall.
All the king's horses and all the king's men
Couldn't put Humpty-Dumpty again.*

*Jack and Jill went up the hill,
To fetch a pail of water;
Jack fell down, and broke his crown,
And Jill came tumbling after.
Up Jack got and home did trot
As fast as he could caper;
Went to bed and bound his head
With vinegar and brown paper.*

*There was an old man with a beard,
Who said, 'It is just as I feared –
Two owls and a hen
Four larks and a wren
Have built their nests in my beard!'*

Exercises:

1. Refer to different source books and make a report on Nursery Rhymes and limericks.
2. Translate some Nursery Rhymes and limericks into Russian.
3. Find translations of Nursery Rhymes and limericks made by Russian writers and read them in groups.
4. Learn 3 more Nursery Rhymes and 3 more limericks by heart.
5. Write your own limerick.

Pre-reading activities:

Discuss in groups what you know about Russian literature before the 14th century.

TEXT 1**Read the text and answer the questions:**

1. What changed the culture of the early Britons?
2. What was king Alfred famous for?
3. Who is the greatest writer of the 14th century?

Anglo-Saxon Literature and the Literature of the Norman Period

In the 7th—11th centuries the culture of the early Britons changed greatly under the influence of Christianity. The monasteries where the art of reading and writing was practiced, became the centres of almost all the learning and education in the country. No wonder many poets and writers imitated those Latin books about the early Christians, and they also made up many stories of their own about saints.

Though the poets were English, they wrote in Latin.

A writer of this time was Bede. His famous book "The History of the English Church" was well known in France and in Italy because the people of the Middle Ages considered it a scientific book. The book is important and interesting for us because it shows what the country was like thirteen hundred years ago and how men acted and thought at that time.

One of the greatest kings of England was Alfred who is famous not only for having built the first navy but for trying to enlighten his people. He drew up a code of laws. To him the English owe the famous Anglo-Saxon Chronicle which may be called the first history of the early Britons and includes miniature sagas.

Various writers of different times wrote for the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles.

In the year 1066, the Norman Duke William crossed the Channel and conquered the English in the great battle fought at Hastings. Within five years William the Conqueror was complete master of the whole of England.

Most of the British writers and poets about whom we are going to speak were educated at Universities. In 1168 some professors founded schools at the town of Oxford, which formed the first university. A second university was formed in 1209 at Cambridge.

In the first half of the 14th century king of England was Edward III. This powerful feudal lord wished to make himself king of France as well. Wishing to make his people believe that he defended English trade, the king made war with France in 1337. This war is now called the Hundred Years' War because it lasted over a hundred years.

The greatest writer of the 14th century was Geoffrey Chaucer. He was born in 1340 in London. At 17 he was page to a lady at the court of Edward III. At 20 he was in France and was then taken prisoner by the French. When he returned to England, his education was none the worse for that, though he had not been to a university.

Chaucer's earliest poems were written in imitation of the French romances. During 1373 and the next few years, Chaucer travelled much and lived a busy life. He went to France, and made three trips to Italy.

Chaucer was well read in the old Roman authors. Italian literature taught him the meaning of national literature.

In 1384 Chaucer wrote his masterpiece, the "Canterbury Tales".

Exercises:

1. Answer the questions:

- Why did the monasteries become the centres of the learning and education?
- What book by Bede was well known in France and Italy? Why?
- Why is this book so important?
- Where were most writers educated?
- What do you know about Oxford and Cambridge?
- Who and why made war with France in 1337

2. Find more information about Chaucer and speak about his masterpiece.

Pre-reading activities:

1. Make a list of facts you know about William Shakespeare.
2. Make a list of his works you have read.
3. Compare your lists in groups.

Text 2

Read the text and say why Shakespeare went to London.

William Shakespeare (1564—1616)

One can hardly come across any other name in world literature that could be compared with the name of William Shakespeare.

The greatest and best interpreter of human nature, the poet of the widest sympathies, of the most profound knowledge of mankind, came into the world at the pleasant town of Stratford-on-Avon in April, 1564. His birthday is uncertain. He was baptised, as the Parish Register states, on April 26, 1564, but there is nothing to prove on what day he was born. His father, John Shakespeare was a wool-dealer and glover. He stood, at all events, in good estimation. He was a yeoman and held some landed property. In 1557, John married Mary Arden. It was

her destiny to become the mother of William Shakespeare. She had eight children: four sons and four daughters. William was the third child.

Being the eldest son William was no doubt looked carefully after. The year of his birth was one of terror in Stratford, for the plague spread not only in London, but over other parts of England and the red cross was seen everywhere. But, fortunately for mankind, the plague spared the house of the Shakespeares.

They show the room in which William was born. It is a low-roofed, antique compartment, but yet possessing an air of comfort.

And when in happy boyhood he opened his eyes upon the world, he found the scenes that surrounded his home full of romantic beauty. William, like all the boys in Stratford, loved the river Avon. He had "an eye for all he saw". Under the hedgerow, through the meadows, on the uplands, and in the beautiful bosom of the country he noted every weed and wildflower. William was twelve years old when Queen Elizabeth made her famous visit to the Earl of Leicester at Kenilworth. And it's more than probable that he was one of the spectators.

We may take it for granted that William went to a good grammar school. We do not know how many years he attended this school. But we do know that he had a quick and ready wit, a keen perception, and an admirable faculty in the acquisition of knowledge. His poems and plays show that he was greatly influenced by the ancient Greek and Roman poets, historians and orators. He knew several languages: Latin, Greek, French, Italian.

Soon his father's fortunes declined and in 1578 William was taken from school.

In 1582 he married Anne Hathaway who was eight years older than William (he was 18 at that time). Whether Anne was beautiful in reality we do not know; but she was to be our Shakespeare's wife, and so she is of interest for all ages.

William had three children. His son Hamnet died when he was eleven years and six months. His daughters Susannah and Judith grew up to womanhood, married and survived their father a number of years. They must have been well educated and well brought up.

In a few years after his marriage Shakespeare went to London to push his fortune. William became an actor, though at first he only helped the actors. By and by he began to write plays for the theatre. Shakespeare wrote on an average a play every six months for nearly twenty years. It was human life that Shakespeare cared for.

Shakespeare was not old when he died—he had barely reached his fifty—third year.

The List of Shakespeare's Works

COMEDIES

"The Two Gentlemen of Verona"

"The Comedy of Errors"
"The Taming of the Shrew"
"Love's Labour's Lost"
"All's Well that Ends Well"
"A Midsummer Night's Dream"
"Much Ado about Nothing"
"The Merry Wives of Windsor"
"Twelfth Night"

TRAGI-COMEDIES

"The Merchant of Venice"
"Measure for Measure"
"Troilus and Cressida"
"Timon of Athens"

HISTORICAL PLAYS

The first, second and third parts of "King Henry VI"
"The Life and Death of King John"
"The Tragedy of King Richard II"
"The Tragedy of King Richard III"
The first and second parts of "King Henry IV"
"The Life of King Henry V"
"The Famous History of the Life of King Henry VIII"

ROMANTIC DRAMAS

"Pericles, Prince of Tyre"
"Cymbeline"
"As You Like It"
"The Winter's Tale"
"The Tempest"

TRAGEDIES

"Titus Andronicus"
"Romeo and Juliet"
"Hamlet, Prince of Denmark"
"Othello, the Moor of Venice"
"King Lear"
"Macbeth"

ROMAN TRAGEDIES

"Coriolanus"
"Julius Caesar"
"Antony and Cleopatra"

POEMS

SONNETS

The monologue of Hamlet

To be, or not to be: that is the question:
Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
And by opposing end them? To die: to sleep;
No more; and, by a sleep to say we end
The heart-ache and the thousand natural shocks
That flesh is heir to, 'tis a consummation
Devoutly to be wish'd. To die, to sleep:
To sleep: perchance to dream: ay, there's the rub;
For in that sleep of death what dreams may come
When we have shuffled off this mortal coil,
Must give us pause. There's the respect
That makes calamity of so long life;
For who would bear the whips and scorns of time,
The oppressor's wrong, the proud man's contumely,
The pangs of dispriz'd love, the law's delay,
The insolence of office, and the spurns
That patient merit of the unworthy takes,
When he himself might his quietus make
With a bare bodkin? who would fardels bear,
To grunt and sweat under a weary life,
But that the dread of something after death,
The undiscover'd country from whose bourn
No traveller returns, puzzles the will,
And makes us rather bear those ills we have
Than fly to others that we know not of?
Thus conscience does make cowards of us all;
And thus the native hue of resolution
Is sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought,
And enterprises of great pith and moment
With this regard their currents turn awry,
And lose the name of action

A sonnet XC

Then hate me when thou wilt; if ever, now;
Now, while the world is bent my deeds to cross,
Join with the spite of fortune, make me bow,
And do not drop in for an after-loss:
Ah! do not, when my heart hath 'scap'd this sorrow,

Come in the rearward of a conquer'd woe;
Give not a windy night a rainy morrow,
To linger out a purpos'd overthrow.
If thou wilt leave me, do not leave me last,
When other petty griefs have done their spite,
But in the onset come: so shall I taste
At first the very worst of fortune's might;
And other strains of woe, which now seem woe,
Compar'd with loss of thee will not seem so.

Уж если ты разлюбишь, — так теперь,
Теперь, когда весь мир со мной в раздоре
Будь самой горькой из моих потерь,
Но только не последней каплей горя!
И если скорбь дано мне превозмочь,
Не нанеси удара из засады.
Пусть бурная не разрешится ночь
Дождливым утром — утром без отрады.
Оставь меня, но не в последний миг,
Когда от мелких бед я ослабею.
Оставь сейчас, чтоб сразу я постиг,
Что это горе всех невзгод больнее.
Что нет невзгод, а есть одна беда —
Твоей любви лишиться навсегда.

Перевод С. Маршака

Exercises:

1. Answer the questions.

1. What is known about the early years of Shakespeare's life and his parents?
2. How did he become a playwright?

2. Make a list of Shakespeare's plays in Russian.
3. Tell the class the contents of one of Shakespeare's plays.
4. What can you say about Hamlet, the main character of the tragedy?
5. What is the idea of the sonnet you have read?
6. Find the information about interpretations of Shakespeare's plays and sonnets into Russian. Make a 5-minute report in a group.
7. Learn a sonnet or the monologue of Hamlet by heart.

Pre-reading activity:

What do you know about ***Daniel Defoe, Jonathan Swift, Walter Scott, Robert Burns***? What novels (poems) of them have you read?

TEXT 3

Read the texts about different British writers and make a chart containing the most important information about them.

Daniel Defoe (1660-1731)

Daniel Defoe, the great English writer of the 17th century, was born in London, in the family of wealthy parents. Daniel got a good education. He had good knowledge of history, mathematics, geography, knew several languages: French, Italian, Spanish, Latin and ancient Greek. His father wanted him to become a priest. But young Defoe did not like this profession. He refused to be a priest, and for many years he was a merchant. He visited many countries: France, Spain, Italy, among others. Then he became a journalist. He started writing late. At first he wrote several political pamphlets and the first one appeared in 1701 and brought him fame. For one of the pamphlets he was put into prison, but then one of the Ministers of the Queen decided to use the talent of the writer. Defoe was set free and allowed to publish his newspaper.

Defoe wrote numerous pamphlets, novels, historical works.

One of his most famous novels—*Robinson Crusoe*—appeared in 1719. The novel is about the adventures of a real man, a Scotch, Alexander Selkirk by name who lived on a desert island for 4 years. The story of Selkirk was well known at that time.

At the end of life his fortune turned its back on him. He died in poverty, quite alone, far away from his wife and many children.

Jonathan Swift (1667-1745)

Jonathan Swift was the greatest satirical writer of his time. He was born in Ireland, in Dublin. His father died before Jonathan was born. In his youth Swift

lived in the house of a rich man, a diplomat named William Temple. Jonathan became his secretary. In 1699 William Temple died. Jonathan Swift became a priest. Soon he began writing satires and pamphlets. He joined the Party of Tory.

In 1714, after the death of Queen Ann, Swift returned to Dublin. He saw the hard life of the people of Ireland and felt very sorry for them. In his articles Swift criticized the English government for treating the Irish people so cruelly. Swift lived in Dublin till his death.

Everybody knows his famous book "Gulliver's Travels". He wrote the book about the four travels to quite unusual countries. When the book first appeared, it was read with great pleasure by many people. For children the book was the one of wonderful adventures. Grown-up readers found in it a bitter satire on the Church, the English government and the Court.

Walter Scott (1771-1832)

When we read the historical novels of Walter Scott, we ourselves become contemporaries of the epoch, citizens of the country in which the events of the novel take place, and we receive in a form of vivid contemplation a better understanding of them than any history can give us.

Belinsky

Walter Scott was born in the family of a lawyer in Edinburgh. His parents were of an ancient Scottish origin, a matter of which Scott was proud.

He first became known as a poet. But real fame was won by him after publishing historical novels, the first of which made its appearance in 1814 anonymously ("Waverley"). The book was a success. Since then every year Scott published a new historical novel. In 1827 their authorship was disclosed.

Scott wrote more than 25 novels apart from numerous stories, poems, articles. Here are some of them:

"Waverley", "Old Morality", "Rob Roy", "Ivanhoe", "The Heart of Midlothian", "The Abbot", "The Castle Dangerous".

At the end of his life fortune turned its back on him. The publishing firm of which he was a partner went bankrupt. Scott's debts were 117,000 pounds. He worked hard to clear them off. The exertion told sadly upon his health and he died of nostalgia in his estate at Abbotsford.

Works

Scott is a creator and a great master of the historical novels. He knew well that the historical process was full of conflicts. Observing reality, he came to understand the inevitability of the decay of the old and the victory of the new social forms.

The central heroes of Scott's novels are young men of valour. They are usually of noble birth. However they appear in the books as common men, poor, persecuted. Very often they are thrown into comradeship with common folk and make close friends with them. ("Ivanhoe" and others).

In the end his heroes acquire their titles and return to the prosperous life of their class. His main heroes on the whole are rather superficial. Belinsky said that these characters serve the aim of holding together numerous adventures, actions and events that make up the plot of the story.

Common people in Scott's novels have best features of national character: courage, cleverness, humour. Scott upholds the traditions of folk songs and ballads. His sympathies are with peasants ("Old Morality"). It is impossible to deny the praise of courage to a few hundred peasants, who, without leaders, without money, without magazines, without any fixed plan of action and almost without arms, borne out only by ... a detestation of the oppression of their rulers, ventured to declare war against an established government, supported by a regular army and the whole force of three kingdoms.

Scott's strong point lies in a vivid description of the beliefs, customs, manners, costumes, language of the epoch plus the energy and movement which his story displays.

Robert Burns (1759-1796)

A historical outline

In the second half of the 18th century the life of small farmers in England as well as in Scotland was hard. The industrial revolution ruined them. Many of them would leave their farms for towns. But some of them would not leave the land on which they were born, but went on ploughing their fields in struggle against the rising forces of capitalism. One of such was the father of Robert Burns.

Biography

The great poet of the Scotch people was born on the 25th of January, 1759 in a small clay-built cottage at Alloway. Robert's father, a poor farmer, worked from early morning till late at night. In his house he had a shelf of books brought from Edinburgh (a fact of importance for the future poet). It was from his father that Robert gained some first traces of education. Robert was lucky to have a good teacher at school, a serious young man who taught him good English, folk ballads, works by Milton, Shakespeare. At the age of 10, Robert would read anything that would come in his way.

Though Robert, being the elder son, had to help his father in the fields from the age of 13 ploughing all day long, he managed to make some acquaintances

among fellows of his age from aristocratic society in the town of Ayr which he would visit on holidays. They were his first teachers of good manners.

When 15 years of age Burns fell in love for the first time in his life and it was then that he created his first poem. Nelly was a pretty girl of 14 who helped Robert ploughing the field. "This is how love and poetry sprang in me." In one of his daybooks he wrote: "There is a certain connection between love, music and poetry. I never dreamed of becoming a poet until I fell in love."

The family moved to Tarbolton. All farmers round the place sang songs created by young Burns. After his father's death the family knew misery.

In 1786, with the help of his friends Burns managed to publish his poems. A total of 600 copies of the book disappeared from the bookshops in several days. His name became known in London and Edinburgh. Burns found his way to the upper circles. Aristocrats were surprised to see the farmer who moved among them with much dignity, spoke refined English and recited best pieces of old and modern literature. His poems and he himself amused the higher society of Edinburgh. As for the poet he expressed his opinion of the society in his epigrams and some poems.

Burns left Edinburgh and started on a tour of the South of Scotland where he had never been. Then he visited the north of the country.

Burns had many attachments among women. He would easily fall in love. But his life-long love was Jean Armour, his wife, whom he married secretly against the will of her parents. She was a great help to him throughout his life, she would forgive him his unexpected passions, the hardships of life. She had a beautiful voice and sang every song, created by him.

The last years of Bum's life were very hard. He gave up farming and with the help of his friends got a place at an office in Dumfries. In 1795 he fell seriously ill. Ten days before his death he wrote into his cousin: "... a shopkeeper whom I owe a large sum of money took a proceeding against me. All that remains of me—bones and skin—they would surely throw into prison. Can you do me a favour and send me 10 pounds. Oh, James, if you knew my proud heart you would know how I feel. I am not accustomed to beg. Save me from the terror of prison!"

On 21st of July, 1796, being 37 years old, Burns died. His elder son was 9. Burns's friends took care of Jean and the children. They got education. Jean died at the age of 80 and was always proud to see her well-educated sons.

Burns was buried in Dumfries where a great monument was put several years later.

My Heart's in the Highland

My heart's in the Highlands, my heart is not here,

My heart's in the Highlands a-chasing the deer;

A-chasing the wild deer, and following the roe
My heart's in the Highlands wherever I go.
Farewell to the Highlands, farewell to the North,
The birthplace of the valour, the country of worth;
Wherever I wander, wherever I rove,
The hills of the Highlands for ever I love.
Farewell to the mountains high covered with snow;
Farewell to the straths and green valleys below;
Farewell to the forests and wild-hanging woods;
Farewell to the torrents and loud-pouring floods.

The Merry Ploughman

As I was wandering one morning in spring
I heard a merry ploughman so sweetly sing
And as he was singing the words he did say
There's no life like the ploughman's in the sweet
month of May.

The Skylark in the morning she'll rise from her nest
And mount in the air with the dew on her breast
And with the merry ploughman she'll whistle and sing
And at night she'll return to her nest back again.

Exercises

1. Compare your charts in groups, discuss the importance of the facts you have notified, complete your chart if necessary.
2. Learn **My Heart's in the Highland** by Robert Burns by heart.

Pre-reading activities:

1. What are the main features of Romanticism as a literary current?
2. What representatives of Russian Romanticism do you know?

3. Find out how the names of the following writers are interpreted into Russian: William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, Robert Southey, Percy Bysshe Shelley, George Gordon Byron, John Keats.

TEXT 4

Read the text and say why Lake School was called so.

Lake School

Romanticism as a literary current came into being at the end of the 18th century. England was full of contradictions. The social struggle was sharpened by the influence of the French Revolution.

Romantic writers centre their attention upon the wealth of the inner life of a man. Nature plays an important part in the pages of their work.

Romanticism in England is represented by poets William Wordsworth, Samuel Taylor Coleridge and Robert Southey (the so-called Lake School), Percy Bysshe Shelley, George Gordon Byron and John Keats.

Lake School was called so after the lakeland in northern England where the three poets spent much of their time and whose beauties they described in their poems.

Lucy

William Wordsworth

She dwelt upon the untrodden ways
Beside the springs of Dove;
A maid whom there were none to praise
And very few to love.

A violet by a mossy stone

Half hidden from the eye!

Fair as a star, when only one

Is shining in the sky.

She lived unknown, and few could know
When Lucy ceased to be;
But she is in her grave, and, oh,
The difference to me!

Percy Bysshe Shelley (1792-1822)

Shelley's entire life and art were devoted to struggle against oppression and tyranny. He was the first in English literature to portray the people as a force capable of breaking the existing order of life and establishing a new system. His biography is that of a revolutionary.

At Eton College he was disliked by teachers for his independent thinking. When he entered Oxford University he soon came into conflict with conservatism of contemporary University life. He was expelled from it for his pamphlet "The Necessity of Atheism". Then he went on a tour of England and Ireland where he wrote "Declaration of Right" encouraging the Irish people to stand up for their rights. Shelley's masterpiece is the lyric drama "Prometheus Unbound". According to Greek myths, Prometheus stole fire from Olympus for the people to use it. For this he was punished by Zeus who chained him to a rock. The plot of Shelley's drama is taken from the tragedy by Aeschylus "Prometheus Bound" but Shelley gives the myth his own interpretation. The sharp conflict between Prometheus and Zeus, the tyrant, is the centre of the drama. Though chained to the rock, Prometheus is supported by many forces. Mother Earth herself gives him of strength.

Though far from England Shelley always took great interest in the affairs of his mother country. When he learnt of the workers' demonstration being suppressed in Manchester in 1819 he wrote:

Rise like lions after slumber
In unvanquishable number,
Shake your chains from you like dew
Which in sleep had fallen on you,

You are many — they are few. Shelley is also known as the author of many lyric poems devoted to nature and love. He sings of a love that ennoble man's soul.

Unexpected death cut short Shelley's life: while he was sailing across the Gulf of Spezia a sudden tempest struck the boat and he was drowned. His body was cremated and his ashes were buried in Rome.

John Keats (1795-1821)

Keat's artistic aim was to create a beautiful world of imagination opposed to gloomy reality. Looking for harmony and never-dying beauty, he finds it in works of art, in poetry and in the glory of nature. The poet's poetical credo was clearly expressed in his "Endymion":

A thing of beauty is a joy for ever.
It's loveliness increases; it will never
Pass into nothingness...

On the Grasshopper and Cricket

A Sonnet

The poetry of earth is never dead:
When all the birds are faint with the hot sun
And hide in cooling trees, a voice will run
From hedge to hedge about the new-mown mead,
That is the Grasshopper's—he takes the lead,
In summer luxury—he has never done
With the delight; for when tired out with fun
He rests at ease beneath some pleasant weed.
The poetry of earth is ceasing never:
On a lone winter evening, when the frost
Has wrought a silence, from the stove there shrills
The Cricket's song, in warmth increasing ever,
And seems to one in drowsiness half-lost
The Grasshopper's among some grassy hills.

In Scotland Keats visited the home and the grave of Robert Burns and wrote there a beautiful sonnet.

Keats died in Rome. He was deeply mourned by Shelley who had with great attention followed the literary career of his younger brother-in-arms.

George Gordon Byron (1788-1824)

The 27th of February 1812. The House of Lords is discussing the bill against Frame-breakers. A young man, unknown to anybody, but obviously a lord (others have no right to speak here), is taking the floors. What he says is unprecedented:

"I have been in some of the most oppressed provinces of Peninsula and Turkey; but never under the most despotic of infidel governments did I behold such squalid wretchedness as I have seen since my return in the very heart of a Christian country."

The lords are keeping dead silence. They hate every word they hear. The name of an ardent orator is George Gordon Noel Lord Byron.

Byron was born in 1788. Belonged to an old aristocratic family. Spent his childhood in Aberdeen, Scotland. Attended a grammar school. In 1808 graduated from Cambridge University, receiving A.M. (Master of Arts). Travelled abroad visiting Portugal, Spain, Albania, Greece, Turkey. On returning to England took his seat in the Parliament. For five years lived in London. In 1815 married Anne Milbanke. Was compelled to leave England after parting with his wife. Visited Switzerland, Italy (Venice, Ravenna, Pisa, Genoa). Got engaged in the struggle against the Austrian rule. In 1823 went to Greece on invitation of his Greek friends. Took part in the struggle for national independence of Greece against the Turks. In 1824 fell ill and died.

Byron's Personality

Byron was a very bright person. He enjoyed great fame in his life-time. Being extremely popular among common people he was hated by his own class of aristocrats.

He was a person of great will. Since his early years he was lame. This was the cause of the poet's distress throughout his life. But it did not prevent him from becoming a first-rate sportsman...

Byron's life among English aristocrats was hard. When Byron revealed his love to liberty they made his life in his motherland unbearable. His unhappy marriage added to it. Byron's wife left him accusing him of many sins. His enemies seized on the opportunity and started a regular campaign against him. The poet was boycotted by society. Finally he had to leave England but his spirit was all the same high. "When a man hath no freedom to fight for at home, let him combat for that of his neighbours," he wrote half sadly, half in jest in one of his stanzas. So he did.

In Italy he joined the movement for national liberation. His house was turned into secret storehouse of arms. Byron together with devoted friends awaited impatiently the signal to join the uprising. But it never came. The uprising had been suppressed.

Soon after the oppression of the Italian liberation movement Byron joined the Greeks in the struggle against the Turks. National liberation became the main purpose of Byron's life. He spent his own money to buy arms for Greek partisans, shared with them all hardships of war. He wrote his best lines here:

The dead have been awakened Shall I sleep?
The world's at war with tyrants-Shall I crouch? The
harvest's ripe— And shall I pause to reap? I slumber not—
The thorn is in my couch, Each day the trumpet Soundeth
in mine ear It's echo in my heart-

When he died he was deeply mourned by the Greek people.

The Greeks buried his lungs in their own country. His body was taken to England, but the government did not allow him to occupy the place of honour in the Westminster Abbey. He was buried in the family vault in Hucknall, Nottinghamshire.

The List of Byron's Main Works

POEMS

"Childe Harold's Pilgrimage"

"Oriental Tales" ("The Giaour", "The Corsair", "Lara",

"The Siege of Corinth " and others)

"The Prisoner of Chillon"

"Manfred"

"Cain"

"Heaven and Earth"

"Don Juan"

Analysis of Works

Byron was a revolutionary Romantic poet. While a student Byron published the first collection of his poems "Hours of Idleness" (1807). The verses were attacked by a well-known critic in the journal "Edinburgh Review".

"Childe Harold's Pilgrimage" was created as a result of Byron's travel over the world. It reveals the poet's personal, philosophical and political reflections as well as describes countries visited by Byron. Childe Harold is a pessimistic character. He became disappointed in society and found distraction in lonely travel. Harold's critical attitude towards English aristocratic society reflected Byron's own views. This is what Byron wrote in 1813 in the Preface to the "Pilgrimage":

"I have now waited till almost all our periodical journals have distributed their usual portion of criticism. To the justice of the generality of the criticism I have nothing to object....

I now leave 'Childe Harold' to live his day such as he is; it had certainly been more easy to have drawn an amiable character. It had been easy to varnish over his faults, make him do more and express less but he never was intended as an example further than to show that early perversion of mind and morals leads to satiety of past pleasures and disappointment in new ones..."

"The Prisoner of Chillon" was written after visiting Switzerland. There Byron went to the old Castle of Chillon. He heard the story of Francois Bonnivard, a Swiss hero who in the 15th century had fought for the freedom of his country and had been thrown into the Castle as a prisoner, where he was kept in chains together with his brothers. The story produced a deep impression on Byron and he composed a poem which is one of the best among Byron's works.

In "The Oriental Tales" the hero is a rebel against the society (often a robber or a pirate). He is proud and independent but he is always alone in his struggle. Pride and independence are the main traits of all Byron's heroes.

Byron remains one of the most popular poets both at home and abroad.

Lermontov loved Byron's poems and made wonderful translations of some of them.

Pushkin paid tribute to him in his poem "To the Sea".

Belinsky wrote: "To solve the mystery of the gloomy poetry of so immense, colossal poet as Byron one should first search for the secret of the epoch he expressed."

Byron's "Manfred" inspired Tchaikovsky to compose a symphony.

There are many famous translators of Byron's works into Russian. Among them are: Zhukovsky, Plechsheyev, Lermontov, Bryusov, Blok, Gnedich, Marshak.

She walks in Beauty...

I

She walks in Beauty like the night
Of cloudless climes and starry skies
And all that's best of dark and bright
Meet in her aspect and her eyes.
Thus mellowed to that tender light
Which Heaven to gaudy day denies.

II

One shade the more,
one ray the less
Had half impaired the nameless grace
Which waves in every raven tress
Of softly lightens o'er her face;
Where thoughts serenely sweet express,
How pure, how dear their dwelling-place.

III

And on that cheek, and o'er that brow
So soft, so cream, yet eloquent
The smiles that win, the tints that glow
But tell of days in goodness spent,
A mind at peace with all below,
A heart whose love is innocent.

The Prisoner of Chillon

They chained us each to a column stone,
And we were three—yet each alone;
We could not move a single pace,
We could not see each other's face,
But with that pale and livid light

That made us strangers in our sight.
And thus together—yet apart,
Fettered in hand, but joined in heart,
I was the eldest of the three,
And to uphold and cheer the rest
I ought to do—and did my best— and each did well in his degree.
The youngest, whom my father loved
Because our mother's brow was given
To him with eyes as blue as heaven—
For him my soul was sorely moved;
And truly might it be distressed
To see such a bird in such a nest—
For he was beautiful as day.

.....

Exercises

1. Read the texts about the poets carefully and write out the main facts about their personalities and works.
2. Compare your notes in pairs.
3. Answer in pairs the questions:
 - Why can we say that Byron was a bright person?
 - Why Byron's life among English aristocrats was hard?
 - What movement did Byron join in Italy?
 - Where and why was Byron buried?

4.2. Архитектура

Pre-reading activities:

1. What architectural styles do you know ?
2. What are they characterized by?
- 3 Which one is your favourite?



During the 1980s British nostalgia grew more than ever. Forty-one 'heritage' centres were established. More people than ever went to visit England's historic houses, 67 million such visits in 1985 alone. Why? In the words of *The National Trust Book of the English House*, "They [English country houses] look back to periods of apparent stability and order that, to some people, seem preferable to the chaos of the present." In 1986 there were 2,131 museums in Britain of which half had been established *since* 1971. But as one museum curator warned, "If you are not careful you will wallow in nostalgia, in this sort of myth that the past was wonderful. I personally believe the past was awful."

Anti-Modernism has been a prevalent theme in British culture this century. The popular culture of the urban working class, expressed for example, in cinemas, dance-halls and football stadiums, has been a poor relation. Britain has a far weaker modernist culture than exists in France or Germany, because the British feel less certain about the relationship between architecture, art, design, craft and manufacture. It is safer to live with the quiet authority of a rural past, than the uncertainties of the urban present.

Nowhere was this tension more fiercely debated at the end of the 1980s, than in the field of **architecture**. There was a strong revolt against the use of bare concrete, and against the high rise buildings which had been so popular in the 1960s and early 1970s. But it was also a protest against the unfamiliarity and apparent brutality of Modernist architecture, as it is called. This was popularly associated with cheap public housing and office blocks. In the late 1980s Prince Charles openly championed a return to traditional architecture and building materials. For example, he intervened to prevent a Modernist addition to the National Gallery, an early nineteenth-century building, and to prevent the construction of what he called a 'Glass Stump', designed by the great Modernist architect, Mies van der Rohe, in the City of London. Prince Charles' interventions and his book on the subject, *A Vision of Britain*, created a major debate, in which the popular mood was clearly in sympathy with his views.

The attack on modern architecture tended to concentrate on the worst examples and to ignore more exciting modern work. Modernist architects had no intention of defending the poor architecture of many cheap modern buildings. As the leading architect **James Stirling** remarked, "The housing architecture of the 1960s was simply a matter of building more and more houses for less and less money until you ended up with a sort of trash."

Many architects watched with dismay as important sites were developed in **Post-Modernist** decorative, '**Toytown**' styles, as for example in much of the housing in London's redeveloped Docklands; or in copies of the Classical style, for example Quinlan Terry's Richmond Riverside Development, which carefully but dishonestly disguised modern offices behind 'tasteful' mock-Classical facades. The Modernists, of whom **Richard Rogers** was a leading champion, insisted that buildings should be, and appear, true to their purpose.

These styles, **Post-Modern and Neo-Classical**, were associated in people's minds with private development in the way that high-rise cheap concrete buildings were thought of as the architecture of the welfare state. Thus, Post-Modern and Classical (which are too expensive for low-income families) were associated with the Thatcher decade.

At a deeper level, it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the Post-Modern and Classical challenges to Modernism were a popular revolt against the demands and reality of the modern world. The argument goes beyond stylistic conservatism. The retreat from bold modern planning and buildings implies hesitancy in contrast with, for example, the self-confident modern buildings in Paris. More seriously, it suggests a fear of change, and apprehension rather than enthusiasm about the future.

However nostalgic the British may be, foreign modern influences have been immensely important in shaping popular culture since 1945. As a result of the US presence during and after the war, Britain was invaded by American culture - symbolised by chewing gum, jazz, flashy cars and mass production. It spoke of material wealth and social equality, and seemed highly subversive to adults, who accepted the existing social order, but highly attractive to the young. By 1959 almost 90 per cent of all teenage spending was conditioned by a rapidly Americanising working-class taste. It was not destined to last. In the 1960s Britain was more influenced by the apparent sophistication of the Continent—Italian, French and Spanish cuisine, espresso bars, Scandinavian designs, Modernist architecture.

Buildings of the 20th century

Cardiff's imposing **Civic Centre** (see *picture 6*) is a vast complex including a City Hall and Law Courts by Lanchester & Richards, and the University College by W D Caroë. It was hailed as one of the most magnificent examples of civic planning in Britain but, in retrospect, its deeply conservative architecture also seems both arrogant and strangely out of touch with contemporary building in the rest of Europe.



Picture 6. Civic Centre

The De la Warr Pavilion (see *picture 7*) at Bexhill-on-Sea, Sussex, is a superb expression of all that is best about the Modern Movement. Commissioned by Lord De La Warr, mayor of Bexhill, and built by Eric Mendelsohn and Serge Chermayeff between 1933 and 1936, it was an attempt to make Bexhill as

attractive as exotic French and Italian resorts. It goes without saying that it failed, but the recent restoration of the Pavilion's clean, sweeping lines is a cause for national celebration.



Picture 7. *The De la Warr Pavilion*

The Royal Festival Hall (see *picture 8*) (Sir Leslie Martin and the Architecture Department of the London County Council, 1951) is all that survives of the complex laid out on London's South Bank for the 1951 Festival of Britain. The festival buildings were important for the opportunity they afforded of presenting a showcase for good modern architecture and Martin's concert hall, while not exactly earth-shattering, is a timely reminder of what good festival architecture looks like.



Picture 8. *The Royal Festival Hall*

Answer the questions.

1. What is the prevalent style in British architecture this decade?
2. What is the modernist architecture associated with?
3. What construction was prevented by prince Charles? Why?

Task. Talk about architectural styles of your city.

4.3. Музыка, живопись

Pre-reading activities:

1. Who is your favourite painter? Why?
2. What genres of painting do you prefer?
3. What British painters do you know?

TEXT 1

Famous men of art

Painting in England in the 17th-19th centuries is represented by a number of great artists, and during that period it was greatly influenced by foreign painters. The Flemish painter **Anthony Van Dyck** (1599-1641) was really the father of the English portrait school.

The English king personally invited Van Dyck to London, and during his first year in England the painter spent most of his time painting the king and the queen. Van Dyck created the impressive, formal type of portrait, and such masters as **Reynolds**, **Gainsborough**, **Lawrence** and **Raeburn** owe much to their study of his canvases.

One of the most popular of Van Dyck's works is the "Family Portrait".

During the 18th century a national school of painting was founded in England. **William Hogarth** (1697-1764) was the first great English artist who raised British art to a high level of importance.

Hogarth painted many pictures. Success had come to him due to hard labour. He wrote, "I know of no such thing as genius. It is nothing but labour and diligence."

Hogarth is also well known as a satirist on canvas and a humorist. He loved to call himself "author" rather than "artist". We recognize his literary talent and can place him with such great masters of literature as Moliere, Fielding, and Thackeray.



Picture 12. William Hogarth *Marriage a-la-mode*

Sir Joshua Reynolds (1723-1792) was the most outstanding portraitist of the second half of the 18th century. He was born in Devonshire in 1723. He received a good education from his father, a clergyman and master of the free grammar school. At seventeen Reynolds went to London to study painting, where he soon became a fashionable portrait-painter. In 1768 Reynolds became the first president of the Royal Academy founded at that time.

Reynolds completed a whole gallery of portraits of his famous contemporaries. He painted his models in heroic style showing them as the best people of the nation. His portraits are not free of certain idealization of characters.

Reynolds' devotion to portraiture made him one of the founders of the English school of portrait painting at that time. Some of his mythological works include real personages.



Picture 13. Sir Joshua Reynolds A self-portrait

George Romney (1734-1802) painted portraits following Reynolds' style to some degree. Romney's portrait of Mrs. Greer shows a very attractive woman whose beauty is emphasized by the contrast between her pale face and dark deep eyes and the strong colouring of her dress, done in black, grey and light tones. Romney never created a psychological image of his models. He expressed a general impression making it elegant and vivid.



Picture 14. George Romney Miss Sarah Rodbard

John Hoppner (1758-1810) portrayed the English aristocracy at the end of the 18th century. Most of his works show elegant ladies and nice children.



Picture 15. John Hoppner A group portrait on the Hon

John Opie (1761-1807) painted not only portraits but also historical scenes. The artist was mostly self-taught but very talented.

Henry Raeburn (1756-1823) was a Scottish painter. He created a great number of portraits that are done with much feeling. He uses shadow and light contrasts making his technique monochromatic. Raeburn's manner bears a certain resemblance to that of Reynolds'. But at the same time there are important differences between the two. In his portrait of Mrs. Bethume the painter shows not only the woman's wonderful beauty but also her inner character. The transmission from lilac to rust colours serves to emphasize the lyrical qualities of the model.

Thomas Gainsborough (1727-1788) can be called one of the greatest masters of the English school. He painted portraits and landscapes. His manner differs greatly from that of Reynolds' circle. Gainsborough had little academic training. The influence of old masters is not so easily seen in his works. The famous "Blue Boy" (see *picture 16*) is one of his best-known canvases. But there is no definite information about the date of its painting. The work was little known in Gainsborough's days.

Gainsborough greatly influenced the English school of landscape painting. He was one of the first English artists to paint his native land. His best landscapes are "Cornard Wood", "The Market Cart", "The Bridge", "Sunset" and others. Gainsborough's great love for his country-side, and his ability to paint it made him an innovator in this field. His works contain much poetry and music. Gainsborough is sometimes considered to be a forerunner of impressionists, although he did not know their theories and techniques.



Picture 16. Blue boy

John Constable (1776-1837) was an English landscape-painter. His most famous works are "The Lock", "A Cottage in a Cornfield", "The Haywain" (see *picture 17*) and others. He often repeated themes depicted by Gainsborough. Nevertheless, Constable seems really to belong to another century. He was the first painter who worked in the open air making his sketches direct from nature. This manner of painting is characteristic of modern artists. Constable's technique is close to that of the impressionists.



Picture 17. John Constable The Hay Wain

Joseph Turner (1775-1851) was born in London. His father kept a barber's shop. Turner chose to be an artist when he was thirteen. Until 1792 Turner painted only water-colours. His first oil painting was exhibited in the Royal Academy in 1793. In 1802 Turner was elected Academician of Royal Academy and he enjoyed the dignity of Academician for nearly half a century.

More than anything else in nature Turner loved the sea, to which he devoted many of his canvases ("The Shipwreck", "Fishing Boats in a Squall" and others). The sea in itself excited him, but especially he loved to paint the sea as it affected ships.

Task. Find the information about one of the painters and tell about this painter in class.

TEXT 2

Liverpool and the Beatles

In October 1962, when the first single record, "Love Me Do", by an unknown group from Liverpool entered the British Top Thirty, the Beatles (see *picture18*) became nationally famous in England. The famous four who recorded that song were John Lennon, Paul McCartney, George Harrison and Ringo Starr, who became the most successful pop group the world has ever known.



Picture 18. The Beatles

However, the road to success was not always easy. John and Paul had spent many afternoons listening to American stars like Chuck Berry and Elvis Presley before they were able to write the famous Lennon and McCartney songs.

Some years before, when John Lennon was only 19 and George Harrison about 17, the group was invited to play at the famous Star Club in Hamburg in Germany. Although the long evenings spent playing in hot nightclubs in Liverpool and in Hamburg had not earned them much money, they found the experience very useful when playing to huge audience later on.

The Beatles began a series of lunchtime concerts at Liverpool's Cavern Club. They were a great success. The road outside the club was always crowded with girls who worked in nearby shops and offices. They came to see the Beatles during their lunch-break.

The man who ran the local record shop became the Beatles manager. His name was Brian Epstein. He managed to change four ordinary working-class lads into international superstars. George Martin, their record producer, encouraged them to introduce all kinds of unusual instruments on their records and combined popular and classical styles in a new and original way.

During the 1960s the Beatles were always in the news headlines; films, world tours and sometimes scandal. John once suggested that the Beatles were better known than Jesus Christ. This caused anti-Beatles demonstrations in America where young Americans burned their Beatles records. In addition some people in England thought there were hidden messages about drugs in some of the songs.

After a decade of successful music and films, the Beatles finally decided to break up in the early seventies, after public disagreements about money and personalities.

Although many fans hoped there would be a reunion throughout the 1970s, this became impossible with the tragic murder of John Lennon in New York in December 1980.

In October 1982, 20 years after "Love Me Do" entered the British Hit Parade, a Beatles song was again in the Top Ten. The song was... "Love Me Do". The surviving Beatles are still deeply involved in musical and film projects, but many fans still long for the music of the 60s.

TEXT 3

John Lennon

The Beatles group in Great Britain composed and sang many songs with a profound social content, which were sharply critical of bourgeois society. The activity of one of the Beatles, singer and composer John Lennon, began in the second half of the 1950s, in a working-class district in Liverpool.

Lennon showed himself to be a musician who does not stand aloof from the burning problems of bourgeois reality. At one of the Beatles' concerts, Lennon proclaimed with all his frankness and straightforwardness that those who sat in the cheap seats were applauding from the bottom of their hearts, while the rest were merely jingling their jewels.

In one of his interviews, Lennon said that he wanted to write a song which people would sing at their meetings and marches, like they sing Pete Seeger's "We Shall Overcome". And he did write such a song — it was "Give the World a Chance", which became the anthem of the antiwar movement in the West. That song was an expression of its author's protest against Britain's foreign policy, against its support of the US aggression in Vietnam.

John Lennon wasn't a consistent fighter. But he hated the world of cruelty and cash, the world that in the final run murdered him. He became the victim of a murder very typical of the American way of life.

Task.

Find the information about one of the singers/pop groups and tell about them in class.

4.4. Кино, театр

Pre-reading activity. Do Russian people enjoy visiting theatres? What do you prefer to visit- theatre or cinema? Why?

TEXT 1

Theatre and cinema

The theatre has always been very strong in Britain. Its centre is, of course, London, where successful plays can sometimes run without a break for many years. But every large town in the country has its theatres. Even small towns often have 'repertory' theatres, where different plays are performed for short periods by the same group of professional actors (a repertory company).

It seems that the conventional format of the theatrical play gives the undemonstrative British people a safe opportunity to look behind the mask of accepted social behaviour. The country's most successful and respected playwrights are usually those who explore the darker side of the personality and of personal relationships (albeit often through comedy).

British theatre has such a fine acting tradition that Hollywood is forever raiding its talent for people to star in films. British television does the same thing. Moreover, Broadway, when looking for its next blockbuster musical, pays close attention to London productions. In short, British theatre is much admired. As a consequence, it is something that British actors are proud of. Many of the most well-known television actors, though they might make most of their money in this latter medium, continue to see themselves as first and foremost theatre actors.

In contrast, the cinema in Britain is often regarded as not quite part of 'the arts' at all - it is simply entertainment. Partly for this reason, Britain is unique among the large European countries in giving almost no financial help to its film industry. Therefore, although cinema-going is a regular habit for a much larger number of people than is theatre-going, British film directors often have to go to Hollywood because the resources they need are not available in Britain. As a result, comparatively few films of quality are made in the country. This is not because expertise in film making does not exist. It does. American productions often use studios and technical facilities in Britain. Moreover, some of the films which Britain does manage to make become highly respected around the world. But even these films often make a financial loss.

Answer the questions:

1. Find Russian equivalents for the underlined words.
2. Does Russian film industry faces the same problems as the British one? How often do Russian films make a success?

Pre-reading activity. What famous British theatres do you know?

TEXT 2

British Drama Theatre Today

Britain is now one of the world's major theatre centres. Many British actors and actresses are known all over the world. They are Dame Peggy Ashcroft, Glenda Jackson, Laurence Olivier¹, John Gielgud² and others.

Drama is so popular with people of all ages that there are several thousand amateur dramatic societies.

Now Britain has about 300 professional theatres. Some of them are privately owned. The tickets are not hard to get but they are very expensive. Regular seasons of opera and ballet are given at the Royal Opera House³, Covent Garden in London. The National Theatre⁴ stages modern and classical plays, the Royal Shakespeare Company⁵ produces plays mainly by Shakespeare and his contemporaries when it performs in Stratford-on-Avon, and modern plays in its two auditoria in the City's Barbican Centre⁶.

Shakespeare's Globe Playhouse, about which you have probably read, was reconstructed on its original site. Many other cities and large towns have at least one theatre.

There are many theatres and theatre companies for young people: the National Youth Theatre⁷ and the Young Vic Company⁸ in London, the Scottish Youth Theatre in Edinburgh. The National Youth Theatre, which stages classical plays mainly by Shakespeare and modern plays about youth, was on tour in Russia in 1989. The theatre-goers warmly received the production of Thomas Stearns Eliot's* play 'Murder in the Cathedral'. Many famous English actors started their careers in the National Youth Theatre. Among them Timothy Dalton, the actor who did the part of Rochester in 'Jane Eyre' shown on TV in our country.

► References

1. Laurence Olivier ['brans a 'lrviei] — Лоренс Оливье (1907—1989), (английский актер, режиссер; играл на сцене с 1922 г.; один из лучших исполнителей ролей шекспировских персонажей в театре и кино)
2. John Gielgud ['dʒon'gi:lɡud] — Джон Гилгуд (р. 1904, английский актер, режиссер; традиции английского сценического искусства сочетал с системой К. С. Станиславского; удостоен премии Оскара в 1981 г.)
3. the Royal Opera House (Covent Garden) — Королевский оперный театр в Лондоне (основан в 1732 г.)
4. the National Theatre — Национальный театр в Лондоне (создан в 1963 г. под руководством Лоренса Оливье)
5. the Royal Shakespeare Company — Королевская Шекспировская труппа, сокр. the RSC
6. Barbican Centre ['bɑbikan'senta] — культурный центр Барбикан в районе лондонского Сити

7. the National Youth Theatre — Национальный молодежный театр (*возник на базе школьных шекспировских спектаклей. В его составе молодежь в возрасте от 14 до 21 года*)

8. the Young Vic Company — «Янг Вик», молодежный театр (*основан в 1970 г.; назван по аналогии с Old Vic*)

* Thomas Stearns Eliot ['eliat] — Томас Стернз Элиот (1888— 1965), английский поэт, автор пьес в стихах, эссе, статей о культуре и поэзии; оказал влияние на развитие англоязычной поэзии XX в.; наиболее известное произведение «Бесплодная земля»; лауреат Нобелевской премии (1948)

Answer the questions:

1. What prominent English actors do you know?
2. Make a report about the Royal Shakespeare Company.

4.5. Культурные достопримечательности страны (Модуль 4)

Pre-Reading activities:

1. What sights of Great Britain do you know?
2. If you ever went to the United Kingdom what places would you prefer to visit?

TEXT 1

Stonehenge

This ancient monument of huge stones solitarily standing on the Salisbury Plain in Wiltshire, is in Southern England. Stonehenge has captured imaginations for centuries. Theories about who built it have included the Druids, Greeks, Phoenicians, and Atlanteans. Speculations on the reason why it was built range from human sacrifice to astronomy.

These theories include the legend that huge giants were dancing in a circle and then froze into place to create the stone structure; that Stonehenge is an ancient astrological tool that allowed those, from 5000 years ago through the time of the druids, to tell when a solar or lunar eclipse would occur; that Stonehenge was built by the Devil who wanted to surprise the people by such a huge construction which appeared in one night.

Stonehenge is incredible. The pictures are breathtaking, the history is amazing. What amazes most of all is the high level of intelligence that Stonehenge is evidence of. Constructed in 3100 BC, any purpose that it served, is one that tells us how much knowledge, intelligence and culture the people who built Stonehenge had. Stonehenge also tells us how smart and ingenious the builders were because its construction seems impossible without modern day tools. Similar to the construction of the Great Pyramids in Egypt, one must wonder how they moved such giant stones.

Construction

No one knows for sure who built Stonehenge. The first construction began approximately in 3100 BC. Recently there have been radiocarbon studies that suggest the building of Stonehenge began around 8000 BC. This is right around the time of the construction of the Great Sphinx in Egypt. This predates the Druids. It was believed that the Druids built Stonehenge, but it was around long before they were. Stonehenge went through about 4 different construction phases spanning 5000 years. The rocks of Stonehenge vary in weight with the heaviest weighing 50 tons. These stones were quarried from a location 18 miles away from the current site of Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain. Not only is Stonehenge amazing, but the fact that the people who first built Stonehenge around 3100 BC were able to carry such huge rocks 18 miles on wooden sledges, the stones are of Sarsen.

Uses

No one knows for sure why Stonehenge was built and what it was used for, but that has not prevented historians from creating theories as to the uses of Stonehenge. Some say it was used as an ancient astronomical observatory because it is aligned so that it can predict eclipses. Other evidence of this use is that once a year (the summer solstice) the sun rises in direct alignment with the heel stone (which lies apart from the others) if viewing the heel stone from the centre of the rings.

More theories say that Stonehenge was an ancient calendar.

Other theories say that Stonehenge is a place of religious worship or of religious ground. Evidence of this includes archaeological digs that reveal no "trash pits". This signifies that no one left what can be deemed as "trash" around the isolated Stonehenge because it was sacred. It is known that the Druids used Stonehenge as a place of worship and there are even pictures showing this through the late 19th century and early 20th century. However, what **was** it used for before them?

Investigations over the last 100 years have revealed that Stonehenge was built in several stages, from 2800 BC to 1800 BC.

Exercise 1. Match the words and their definitions.

- | | |
|----------------------|--|
| 1. solitarily | a) the time when the sun is furthest north or south of the equator |
| 2. speculation | b) to include a variety of different things |
| 3. range | c) a method of finding out the age of very old objects by measuring the amount of carbon in them |
| 4. eclipse | d) to emphasize that there is only one of something |
| 5. radiocarbon study | e) to dig stones or sand from a quarry |
| 6. quarry | f) the state of being arranged in a line with something or parallel to something |

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| 7. solstice | g) an occasion when the sun or the moon can not be seen |
| 8. alignment | h) when a person guesses about the possible causes or effects of something without knowing all the facts |

Exercise 2. Read the text again and give the main idea.

TEXT 2

The Tower of London

The approach to the Tower is by way of Tower Hill, the site of so many public executions in the past, but where today the public are more peacefully entertained by politicians, preachers, and "buskers".

There is more of London's history in the Tower than anywhere else. It is the oldest surviving building in London, dating from the Norman Conquest, and even before that the site had been used by the Romans, and later by the Saxons as a fortress.

From the eleventh century onwards the Tower has served many purposes — always a fortress but, at various periods of history, also as a royal palace (King Charles II was the last king to stay here and before him, King Henry III); a prison (the long list of unfortunate inmates includes Kings, Queens, Princes and Nobles); a treasury; a mint until 1810; an arsenal; the first royal observatory in the reign of King Charles II; and for three hundred years there was a royal zoo which was moved to Regent's Park in the 1830's.

The oldest part is the White Tower built as a fortress and family residence by William the Conqueror in 1078. The name is said to have originated in the reign of King Henry III who ordered the Tower to be whitewashed. Today the White Tower houses a unique collection of arms and armour and instruments of torture. The Chapel of St. John, on the first floor, is one of the finest surviving specimens of pure Norman architecture — a wonderful combination of immense strength with an impressive simplicity of line. Apart from the windows, which were enlarged by Sir Christopher Wren, the chapel is virtually in its original state. The Chapel has a long recorded history as it was within these walls that the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Chancellor were seized in 1381 during the Peasants' Revolt and taken to be murdered on Tower Hill; King Henry VI's body lay here after his murder in 1471; Mary Tudor went through a form of marriage by proxy to Philip, King of Spain; Lady Jane Grey (the nine-day Queen) prayed here before her execution in 1553. Candidates for the Order of the Bath, the second oldest Order of Knighthood, kept their vigil through the night at its altar, and on the following morning received the accolade of Knighthood from the Monarch. This ceremony dates from 1399 and continued until the coronation of King Charles II. Successive sovereigns were responsible for the many additional buildings that comprise the complex we see today. The inner defensive wall and its thirteen towers were added

in the reign of King Henry III (1216-1272) whilst King Edward I (1272-1307) was responsible for the construction of the outer defences, Traitors' Gate, the completion of the Moat (drained in 1843) and the Middle Tower. Legge's Mount and Brass Mount, two bastions on the outer wall, were built in the reign of King Henry VIII.

Traitors' Gate is now seen as an enormous arch below the outer walls, with its portcullis, through which, when this was the main approach from the river, shackled prisoners passed on their final journey.

The delightful Tower Green, where so many visitors today pose for photographs, was not always so pleasant. Described by Macaulay (1800-1859) as "no sadder spot on earth", this was the site of the scaffold where the less common prisoners met their end. Here perished two of King Henry VIII's wives, Anne Boleyn and Catherine Howard. Lady Jane Grey and the Earl of Essex were also executed here. It was in the Bloody Tower that King Richard III is alleged to have murdered his two young nephews, "the little Princes", in 1483. Sir Walter Raleigh, after being imprisoned here for thirteen years, was beheaded at Westminster in 1618. The present Chapel Royal of St. Peter ad Vincula was built by King Henry VIII (1509-1547) but its origins date back to the beginning of the twelfth century. Here are buried the remains of Queen Anne Boleyn (1536), Queen Catherine Howard (1542), the Dukes of Northumberland (1553), Somerset (1551) and Monmouth (1685), Lady Jane Grey and her husband, Lord Guildford Dudley (1554), Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex (1601) as well as many others of rank and fame. The organ, originally in the Palace of Westminster, is the oldest remaining in the City of London, dating from 1676. The Chapel is hung with regimental colours and contains many monuments and tombs of historical interest.

For several centuries the Tower of London was the chief arsenal in the kingdom, from which the royal armies and fleets were equipped. At the same time, like other royal palaces, it housed the king's personal armours and weapons. Out of these elements has grown the great historical collection of the Tower Armouries, Britain's national museum of arms and armour. In this development, as in so much of Tower history, Henry VIII was a central figure. Seeking to make England a great military power, he restocked and expanded the arsenal at the Tower. As a connoisseur of fine armour he set up the royal armour workshops at Greenwich which continued to produce armours of the highest quality until the eve of the English Civil War. As early as the reign of Elizabeth I the arms and armour of Henry's soldiers and of the king himself were fascinating the select few privileged to visit the Tower.

Most of the public displays are in the White Tower, beginning on the entrance floor with the Hunting and Sporting Gallery. Here may be seen a great variety of specialised weapons developed for use in the hunt, ranging from the small crossbows that shot pellets or stones to bring down birds or rabbits, to the punt gun that could kill a hundred waterfowl at one discharge, and the elephant

guns and whaling harpoon-guns. Some of the firearms in the gallery display remarkable technical ingenuity, such as the repeating guns, while others are splendid examples of artistic craftsmanship — guns as works of art. Here special mention should be made of the Monlong pistols, a prized recent acquisition. These flintlock holster pistols with chiselled steel barrels and inlaid silver decoration, were made by Peter Monlong, a Huguenot gunmaker, probably for William III. Visitors interested in firearms will find especially helpful the extended display that illustrates and explains their development from the clumsy matchlock to the self-igniting cartridge rifle.

The Tudor Gallery, on the top floor, is the centrepiece of the entire Armouries, for here are displayed the personal armours of Henry VIII and the armours made in the workshops at Greenwich which he established. As the visitor enters the Gallery he is confronted by the great Greenwich armour made for Henry in his last years. No portrait conveys more powerfully his massive presence. On either side are armours for the foot combat, made in Henry's earlier sunnier years when he was a slim young man of outstanding energy and charm. Further into the gallery are two fine horse armours commissioned by Henry and another said to have been presented to him by the Emperor Maximilian I. Another of the Emperor's presents is the famous ram's horn helmet.

The adjoining Seventeenth-Century Gallery shows how armour gradually disappeared from the battlefield. But beside the equipment of the lancer, light cavalry-man, musketeer and pikeman of the Civil War, are the elegant and ornate personal armours of the Stuarts, with Charles I's engraved and gilt armour outstanding.

The Oriental Gallery, in the Waterloo Building, contains arms and armour from Asia and Africa. The most spectacular exhibits are undoubtedly the elephant armour, captured by Robert Clive at the Battle of Plassey in 1757, which is displayed on a full-size model elephant, and the Japanese Samurai armours, but there are many other pieces worth looking for such as the Indian mortar made in the shape of a sitting tiger, the Burmese dragon gun and the Chinese repeating crossbow.

The Crown Jewels had for many years been kept in the Wakefield Tower but since 1967 have been housed in a specially constructed strongroom below the Waterloo Barracks. Here is probably the world's largest and most valuable collection of jewels and gold plate, comprising the Coronation Regalia, most of which, due to the hatred of everything royal by Oliver Cromwell, dates from 1660. Three notable exceptions are Queen Elizabeth I's salt cellar, which is the oldest of the gold plate, the twelfth-century anointing spoon, and the Ampulla, the age of which cannot be determined for certain, although it is believed to have been used at the Coronation of Henry IV in 1399. The original Crown of England (St. Edward's Crown) was one of the many treasures destroyed by Cromwell, and the Crown on display today is a copy made for the coronation of King Charles II. The Imperial

State Crown, worn by the Monarch at the opening of Parliament and other state occasions, was made by command of Queen Victoria and first used at her coronation in 1838. This is possibly the most valuable crown in the world, containing many precious diamonds, rubies, sapphires and emeralds. Among the many famous and historic stones in this crown are the Stuart Sapphire, the Black Prince's Ruby and the second Star of Africa. The Queen Mother's Crown, made for the coronation of Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth in 1937, contains the famous and beautiful Koh-i-noor diamond, which according to legend, brings misfortune to male owners. This magnificent diamond is the large stone at the centre point of the cross.

Among the splendid objects of royal regalia, the Sovereign's Orb and Sceptre are the most striking and valuable, containing the Great Star of Africa which weighs 530 carats and is the largest cut diamond in the world. Of the many swords displayed, the jewelled Great Sword of State, dating from the late seventeenth century, is undoubtedly the most spectacular. Its scabbard is decorated with diamonds, emeralds, and rubies, in designs forming the Rose of England, the Thistle of Scotland and the Shamrock of Ireland.

On the ground floor are displayed the insignia and robes of the Orders of Knighthood: the Garter, the Bath, St. Michael & St. George, the Victorian Order, the Thistle, St. Patrick, the Star of India, the Indian Empire, and the British Empire. The oldest of these is the Garter founded by Edward III in 1348. According to tradition the King was dancing with Joan of Kent, later the Countess of Salisbury, at a royal ball when to the intense embarrassment of the lady concerned she dropped her garter. With great aplomb the King retrieved it and placed it on his own leg, stating as he did so, *Hon/soit quimal y pense* ("Shame to him who thinks ill of it") — which was to become the motto of this most noble Order.

The Tower has always been a royal palace and under the direct control of the Sovereign who appoints the Constable as her representative. The holder of this high office, one of the oldest royal appointments in England, has the privilege of direct audience with the Sovereign. Geoffrey de Mandeville was the first Constable, chosen by William the Conqueror for outstanding achievements at the Battle of Hastings.

Originally, the Constable was appointed for life, but since 1933 the term of office has been five years. From the reign of Elizabeth I the Lieutenant assumed command of the Tower on the Constable's behalf but in time the Lieutenant too no longer resided in the Tower. Nowadays routine administration is in the hands of the Resident Governor and Major, who is also the Keeper of the Jewel House (a Royal appointment), assisted by two Deputy Governors. The Governor, or one of his deputies, is obliged to be present in the Tower at all times. The Governor also has under his command the military guard and those much loved Yeomen Warders, who should not be confused with the Yeomen of the Guard despite the general similarity

of uniform. The splendid Tudor style State Dress of the Yeomen Warders was approved in its present form in Queen Victoria's reign. It is reserved for ceremonial duty and the guarding of royalty during visits to the City of London. The State Dress consists of a Tudor bonnet with a red, white and blue ribbon around the base of the crown, white neck ruff, scarlet uniform with gold embroidered Royal Crown, Tudor rose, thistle, shamrock and leek on front and back, with the royal cypher. The skirt, which finishes just below the knee, has double lines of gold braid on either side of a black velvet strip, as do the belt and sleeves. Scarlet breeches and stockings with black shoes are worn with tri-colour rosettes at the knee and on the shoes. The Warders, when in state dress, are armed with eight-foot-long partizans bearing the royal arms and cypher. They are more usually seen in their dark blue undress uniforms which were approved by Queen Victoria in 1858. The Yeomen Warders are a unique body by tradition originating from the reign of Henry VII. They now number some forty men, carefully selected ex-warrant officers, who, in the words of a former Constable, the Duke of Wellington, must be "deserving, gallant, and meritorious discharged sergeants of the Army", though in the course of time selection has been enlarged to include the Royal Air Force and Royal Marines. Most of the Warders are married and live with their wives and children in various quarters situated throughout the Tower. The principal responsibility of the Warders has always been for the security of the Tower. Once they looked after prisoners; now they attend to the three million visitors who come to the Tower every year to whom they are affectionately known as the "Beefeaters" (although it should be noted that this is not a complimentary form of address), the smartly uniformed guides and courteous "nursemaids" who never lose their patience and rarely complain at being asked to pose for the never-ending photographs!

The Chief Yeoman Warder, who on ceremonial occasion carries a silver mace topped by a replica of the White Tower, is responsible for securing the gates of the Tower which begins the nightly ritual of the Ceremony of the Keys. The Chief Warder's second-in-command is the Yeoman Gaoler who bears the ceremonial axe. Other titled Warders are the Yeoman Clerk, Sexton to the Chapels Royal, and the Yeoman Raven Master, who is in charge of those unofficial custodians of the Tower, the half-a-dozen or so ravens. The Governor, as Keeper of the Jewel House, is aided by a Curator with a separate staff of Assistant Curators and Wardens. The Wardens wear a distinctive Royal Household uniform of dark blue frock coat with gold epaulettes and a black top hat with a gold band. The Tower's administrative team includes the Master of the Armouries, assisted by the Keeper of Armour, the Keeper of Firearms and the Keeper of Edged Weapons, all very specialist posts held by internationally recognised experts in their particular fields. To cater for the needs of an ever increasing number of school-children (well over 100,000 come every year on organised visits) and adult students, an Education Officer was appointed in 1974.

Since the regular army was formed after the restoration of Charles II there has always been a military guard at the Tower. Nowadays the guard is usually provided by one of the Foot Guards regiments, whose men are instantly recognizable by their bearskins. The changing of the Guard, at Queen's House, usually takes place each day at about 11.30 a.m. But another regiment, the Royal Fusiliers, have an even closer link with the Tower, for the regiment was raised here in the reign of James II, by the Constable of the Tower, Lord Dartmouth. Recently, the Fusiliers' headquarters and officers' mess have been re-established in the Tower, along with the regimental museum which tells the Fusilier's proud story through portraits, documents, medals and uniforms and battle dioramas.

No other historic monument in England can boast such an unbroken continuity with the past or have played such a major role in the nation's heritage. The Tower's great sense of history lives on in its traditions and particularly in the ceremonies which are still performed here virtually unchanged after several centuries.

The Tower is justly well-known for its unique Ceremony of the Keys which in some form may well have been enacted nightly for over seven hundred years, since the defences of the Tower were completed. This is probably the oldest military ceremony in the world and no-one can witness it without admiring the absolute precision of the participants or fail to be stirred by tremendous feelings of history. The ceremony begins at eight minutes to ten o'clock each evening when the Chief Yeoman Warder, in a long scarlet coat, leaves the Byward tower accompanied by an escort of four soldiers and secures the main gates of the Tower. Then, as he and the escort return, the sentry at the Bloody Tower gives the challenge, "Halt, who goes there?" The Chief Warder replies, "The Keys". Sentry, "Whose keys?" Chief Warder, "Queen Elizabeth's Keys". The party then proceeds to the foot of the steps leading to Broad Walk where they are met by the main guard who present arms. The Chief Warder, raising his Tudor bonnet, cries out, "God preserve Queen Elizabeth". The guard respond with "Amen" as the clock strikes ten, and the bugler then sounds the Last Post. The Chief Warder finally bears the keys to the Queen's House where are kept securely overnight.

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions on the text:

1. What is the oldest building in London?
2. What time is it dating from?
3. What purposes has the Tower served?
4. How long was the Tower of London the chief arsenal?
5. What galleries are represented in the Tower of London?
6. What Crown Jewels can you think of?
7. Who are the Yeoman Warders?
8. What do you know about the Ceremony of the Keys?

TEXT 3

The Houses of Parliament

Dominating the eastern extremity of the complex of buildings known as the Houses of Parliament, but more correctly the Palace of Westminster, is the 320 foot high tower housing the Palace clock. Famed throughout the world as Big Ben (actually the name of the bell), it was reputedly so called after Sir Benjamin Hall, the burly Commissioner of Works when it was installed in 1858. The Clock Tower (98 m/320 ft) contains a clock with four dials, each 7 m (23 ft) in diameter, and a great bell, Big Ben, weighing 13.5 tons. A light above the clock signifies that the House of Commons is sitting during the night, whilst during the day the Union Jack is flown from the Victoria Tower.

This has been the seat of government since the early part of the eleventh century but not until 1547 did it become the permanent home of Parliament. The present neo-Gothic buildings, dating from about 1850, are the work of Sir Charles Barry and Augustus Pugin replacing the earlier structure which was almost totally destroyed by fire in a single night on 16 October 1834. The medieval crypt and cloisters of St. Stephen's Chapel escaped the fire and were skilfully incorporated into the new building along with Westminster Hall which for six hundred years was the chief court of English Law. This great hall, with its fine timber roof spanning some 70 feet, was originally built by William Rufus in 1097 and restored by King Richard II in 1398. It has been the scene of much stirring history — from Coronation banquets to trials for high treason. It was here that Sir Thomas More, King Charles I, William Wallace, Guy Fawkes, the Earl of Essex and many others of high rank were sentenced to death.

The never-to-be-forgotten Gunpowder Plot of 1605 failed to blow up the Houses of Parliament but enemy bombing in 1941 inflicted serious damage to the Commons. Much of the timber used in the reconstruction of the new chamber, opened in 1950, was given by Commonwealth countries.

The House of Lords, which providentially escaped the 1941 bombing is a sumptuous chamber in rich tones of red and gold and is the meeting place of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal. The walls are lined with paintings and with statues of the eighteen barons who secured the Magna Carta from King John in 1215. At the south end of the chamber is the magnificent Queen's Throne with its beautiful carved and gilt canopy — the smaller throne on the right is for the Consort. The Lord Chancellor, who presides over the assembly, sits on the Woolsack which signifies the former importance of wool to the economy of England. The genius of Pugin's ornamentation in the grand Gothic style is richly portrayed in the Queen's Robing Room, a sumptuous state apartment replete with elaborate woodcarving and containing a series of paintings by William Dyce depicting the legend of King Arthur. The adjacent Royal Gallery, a long room with a fine coloured Minton tiled floor, is dominated by two huge paintings, The Death

of Nelson and The Meeting of Wellington and Blucher after Waterloo, by Daniel Maclise, and contains gilt statues of every monarch from King Alfred to Queen Anne.

The State Opening of Parliament is an annual event, usually towards the end of October or early November or following a general election. The Queen drives from Buckingham Palace in the Irish State Coach, accompanied by a sovereign's mounted escort, by way of The Mall to the House of Lords. The Queen's Speech from the throne in the House of Lords (the sovereign has not been admitted to the Commons for over three hundred years since King Charles I was refused entry), traditionally sets the theme of the Governments's business for the ensuing session.

The graceful cast-iron Westminster Bridge was constructed between 1854-62 to replace the earlier one of stone. The design blends well with the neo-Gothic of the Houses of Parliament. At the south end of the bridge is the bronze statue of Queen Boadicea by Thomas Thornycroft, unveiled in 1902. Boadicea, widow of the King of Iceni, rebelled against the Roman occupation and in A.D. 61 attacked the City which was razed to the ground and most of its inhabitants were slain. The professionally trained and better armed Roman army subsequently proved superior to the Britons who were slaughtered without mercy. Boadicea and her daughters took poison to avoid a more terrible death.

Whitehall is the street linking Trafalgar Square to Parliament Square and is known for its concentration of Government offices and historic buildings: Ministry of Defence, Ministry of Agriculture, the Home Office, the Treasury, the old Admiralty Building, the Lord Privy Seal's office, Horse Guards, the Banqueting Hall, and at the far end the Cenotaph.

The Banqueting Hall, designed by Inigo Jones in 1619 for King James I, is all that remains of Whitehall Palace. One of the first of London's buildings in the classical Italian tradition it was possibly also the first to be built of Portland stone. Rubens received 3,000 pounds and a knighthood from King Charles I for the nine allegorical paintings which adorn the ceiling. Possibly the King saw the paintings on that icy cold January morning when he left the House by way of a first floor window on the way to the scaffold. Oliver Cromwell made much use of the Hall for the reception of visiting ambassadors and King Charles II was officially welcomed here by the House of Commons on his Restoration. Opposite is the more colourful Horse Guards, built between 1750 and 1760 to the design of William Kent on the site of the guardhouse to the Whitehall Palace. Here are to be found those very popular subjects for the tourists' photographs: the imperturbable mounted guard of the Household Cavalry.

Horse Guards Parade, the former tilt-yard of the old Palace, is on the other side of the central archway and there the annual ceremony of Trooping the Colour takes place on the sovereign's official birthday.

Changing the Guard is another colourful ceremony which takes place most mornings in the courtyard of the Horse Guards, Whitehall, by the Queen's Life

Guard from the Household Cavalry. At Buckingham Palace the guard is changed by the Queen's Guard, provided by the Guards division.

Downing Street, off Whitehall is undoubtedly the most famous street in London, for No. 10 is the official home of the Prime Minister and has been since Sir Robert Walpole took up residence in 1735 at the suggestion of King George II. No. 11 is occupied by the Chancellor of the Exchequer whilst No. 12 is the office of the government Chief Whip.

Exercise 1. Answer the following questions on the text:

1. What do you know about Big Ben?
2. Who presides over the assembly of The House of Lords?
3. What can you tell about The State Opening of Parliament?
4. What is Whitehall famous for?
5. How did Oliver Cromwell use the Banqueting Hall?
6. When do Trooping the Colour and Changing the Guard take place?
7. Who lives on Downing Street?

Exercise 2. Find some more information about other sights of Britain and make a short report.

4.6. Выдающиеся деятели современной Великобритании и других стран изучаемого языка

TEXT 1

Margaret Thatcher

Margaret Thatcher's tenure as Prime Minister was the longest since that of Lord Salisbury and was the longest continuous period in office since the tenure of Lord Liverpool who was prime minister in the early 19th century. She was the first woman to lead a major political party in the UK, and the first of only three women to have held any of the four great offices of state. She currently has a life peerage as Baroness Thatcher, of Kesteven in the County of Lincolnshire, which allows her to sit in the House of Lords.

She was the catalyst who set in motion a series of interconnected events that gave a revolutionary twist to the century's last two decades and helped mankind end the millennium on a note of hope and confidence. The triumph of capitalism, the almost universal acceptance of the market as indispensable to prosperity, the collapse of Soviet imperialism, the downsizing of the state on nearly every continent and in almost every country in the world — Margaret Thatcher played a part in all those transformations, and it is not easy to see how any would have occurred without her.

Born in 1925, Margaret Hilda Roberts was an enormously industrious girl. The daughter of a Grantham shopkeeper, she studied on scholarship, worked her way to Oxford and took two degrees, in chemistry and law. Her fascination with politics led her into Parliament at age 34, when she argued her way into one of the best Tory seats in the country, Finchley in north London. Her quick mind (and faster mouth) led her up through the Tory ranks, and by age 44 she got settled into the "statutory woman's" place in the Cabinet as Education Minister, and that looked like the summit of her career. But Thatcher was, and is, notoriously lucky. Her case is awesome testimony to the importance of sheer chance in history. In 1975 she challenged Edward Heath for the Tory leadership simply because the candidate of the party's right wing abandoned the contest at the last minute. Thatcher stepped into the breach. When she went into Heath's office to tell him her decision, he did not even bother to look up. "You'll lose," he said. "Good day to you."

But as Victor Hugo put it, nothing is so powerful as "an idea whose time has come." And by the mid-'70s enough Tories were fed up with Heath and "the Ratchet Effect" — the way in which each statist advance was accepted by the Conservatives and then became a platform for a further statist advance.

She chose her issues carefully — and, it emerged, luckily. The legal duels she took on early in her tenure as Prime Minister sounded the themes that made her an enduring leader: open markets, vigorous debate and loyal alliances. Among her first fights: a struggle against Britain's out-of-control trade unions, which had destroyed three governments in succession. Thatcher turned the nation's anti-union feeling into a handsome parliamentary majority and a mandate to restrict union privileges by a series of laws that effectively ended Britain's trade-union problem once and for all. "Who governs Britain?" she famously asked as unions struggled for power. By 1980, everyone knew the answer: Thatcher governs.



Picture 19. Thatcher with close ally and friend, United States President Ronald Reagan, 1981

Once the union citadel had been stormed, Thatcher quickly discovered that every area of the economy was open to judicious reform. Even as the rest of Europe toyed with socialism and state ownership, she set about privatizing the nationalized industries, which had been hitherto sacrosanct, no matter how inefficient. It worked. British Airways, an embarrassingly slovenly national carrier that very seldom showed a profit, was privatized and transformed into one of the world's best and most profitable airlines. British Steel, which lost more than a billion pounds in its final years as a state concern, became the largest steel company in Europe.

By the mid-1980s, privatization was a new term in world government, and by the end of the decade more than 50 countries, on almost every continent, had set in motion privatization programs, floating loss-making public companies on the stock markets and in most cases transforming them into successful private-enterprise firms. Even left-oriented countries, which scorned the notion of privatization, began to reduce their public sector on the sly. Governments sent administrative and legal teams to Britain to study how it was done. It was perhaps Britain's biggest contribution to practical economics in the world since J.M. Keynes invented "Keynesianism," or even Adam Smith published *The Wealth of Nations*.

But Thatcher became a world figure for more than just her politics. She combined a flamboyant willpower with evident femininity. It attracted universal attention, especially after she led Britain to a spectacular military victory over Argentina in 1982. She understood that politicians had to give military people clear orders about ends, then leave them to get on with the means. Still, she could not bear to lose men, ships or planes. "That's why we have extra ships and planes," the admirals had to tell her, "to make good the losses." Fidelity, like courage, loyalty and perseverance, were cardinal virtues to her, which she possessed in the highest degree. People from all over the world began to look at her methods and achievements closely, and to seek to imitate them.

One of her earliest admirers was Ronald Reagan, who achieved power 18 months after she did. He too began to reverse the Ratchet Effect in the U.S. by effective deregulation, tax cutting and opening up wider market opportunities for free enterprise. Reagan liked to listen to Thatcher's various lectures on the virtues of the market or the minimal state. "I'll remember that, Margaret," he said. She listened carefully to his jokes, tried to get the point and laughed in the right places.

They turned their mutual affection into a potent foreign policy partnership. With Reagan and Thatcher in power, the application of judicious pressure on the Soviet state to encourage it to reform or abolish itself, or to implode, became an admissible policy. Thatcher warmly encouraged Reagan to rearm and thereby bring Russia to the negotiating table. She shared his view that Moscow ruled an "evil empire," and the sooner it was dismantled the better. Together with Reagan she

pushed Mikhail Gorbachev to pursue his perestroika policy to its limits and so fatally to undermine the self-confidence of the Soviet elite.

Historians will argue hotly about the precise role played by the various actors who brought about the end of Soviet communism. But it is already clear that Thatcher has an important place in this huge event.

It was the beginning of a new historical epoch. All the forces that had made the 20th century such a violent disappointment to idealists--totalitarianism, the gigantic state, the crushing of individual choice and initiative--were publicly and spectacularly defeated. Ascendant instead were the values that Thatcher had supported in the face of sometimes spectacular opposition: free markets and free minds. The world enters the 21st century and the 3rd millennium a wiser place, owing in no small part to the daughter of a small shopkeeper, who proved that nothing is more effective than willpower allied to a few clear, simple and workable ideas.

Answer the questions:

1. Is Margaret Thatcher popular with people? If so, what is she famous for?
2. Was she a world figure? Support your idea.
3. What does this statement “The world enters the 21st century and the 3rd millennium a wiser place, owing in no small part to the daughter of a small shopkeeper, who proved that nothing is more effective than willpower allied to a few clear, simple and workable ideas” mean?

TEXT 2

Hillary Clinton

Hillary Diane Rodham Clinton (born October 26, 1947) is the junior United States Senator from New York, and a candidate for the Democratic nomination in the 2008 presidential election. She is married to Bill Clinton—the 42nd President of the United States—and was the First Lady of the United States from 1993 to 2001.

A native of Illinois, Hillary Rodham attracted national attention in 1969 when she delivered a controversial address as the first student to speak at commencement exercises for Wellesley College. She began her career as a lawyer after graduating from Yale Law School in 1973, moving to Arkansas and marrying Bill Clinton in 1975, following her career as a Congressional legal counsel; she was named the first female partner at Rose Law Firm in 1979 and was listed as one of the one hundred most influential lawyers in America in 1988 and 1991. She served as the First Lady of Arkansas from 1979 to 1981 and 1983 to 1992, was active in a number of organizations concerned with the welfare of children, and was on the board of Wal-Mart and several other corporate boards.

As First Lady of the United States, she took a prominent position in policy matters. Her major initiative, the Clinton health care plan, failed to gain approval by the U.S. Congress in 1994, but in 1997 she helped establish the State Children's Health Insurance Program and the Adoption and Safe Families Act. She became the first First Lady to be subpoenaed, testifying before a Federal grand jury as a consequence of the Whitewater scandal in 1996. She was never charged with any wrongdoing in this or several other investigations during her husband's administration. The state of her marriage to Bill Clinton was the subject of considerable public discussion following the Lewinsky scandal in 1998.

Moving to New York, Clinton was elected to the United States Senate in 2000, the first time a First Lady was elected to public office and the first female Senator from that state. There she initially supported the George W. Bush administration on some foreign policy issues, which included voting for the Iraq War Resolution. She has subsequently opposed the administration on its conduct of the Iraq War and has opposed it on most domestic issues. She was re-elected by a wide margin in 2006. Long described as a polarizing figure in American politics, during 2007 she has consistently been the front-runner in polls for the 2008 Democratic nomination for President.



Picture 2. Hillary Rodham Clinton

Lewinsky scandal

In 1998, the Clintons' relationship became the subject of much speculation and gossip when it was revealed that the President had had an extramarital affair with White House intern Monica Lewinsky. Events surrounding the Lewinsky scandal eventually led to the impeachment of Bill Clinton. When the allegations against her husband were first made public, Hillary Clinton stated that they were the result of a "vast right-wing conspiracy", characterizing the Lewinsky charges as the latest in a long, organized, collaborative series of charges by Clinton political enemies, rather than any wrongdoing by her husband. She later said that she had been misled by her husband's initial claims that no affair had taken place. After the evidence of President Clinton's encounters with Lewinsky became incontrovertible and he admitted to her his unfaithful behavior, she issued a public

statement reaffirming her commitment to their marriage, but privately was reportedly furious at him and was unsure if she wanted to stay in the marriage.

There was a mix of public reactions to Hillary Clinton after this: some women admired her strength and poise in private matters made public, some sympathized with her as a victim of her husband's insensitive behavior, others criticized her as being an enabler to her husband's indiscretions by not obtaining a divorce, while still others accused her of cynically staying in a failed marriage as a way of maximizing her own political power. Overall, her public approval ratings in the wake of the revelations shot upward to 71 percent, the highest they had ever been. In her 2003 memoir, she would attribute her decision to stay married to love: "No one understands me better and no one can make me laugh the way Bill does. Even after all these years, he is still the most interesting, energizing and fully alive person I have ever met."

United States Senator

Following the September 11, 2001 attacks, Clinton sought to obtain funding for the recovery efforts in New York City and security improvements in her state. Working with New York's senior senator, Charles Schumer, she was instrumental in quickly securing \$21.4 billion in funding for the World Trade Center site's redevelopment. She subsequently took a leading role in investigating the health issues faced by 9/11 first responders. Clinton voted for the USA Patriot Act in October 2001, as did all but one senator. In 2005, when the act was up for renewal, she worked to address some of the civil liberties concerns with it, before voting in favor of a compromise renewed act in March 2006 that gained large majority support. As a member of the Senate Committee on Armed Services, Clinton strongly supported military action in Afghanistan, saying it was a chance to combat terrorism while improving the lives of Afghan women who suffered under the Taliban government. Clinton voted in favor of the October 2002 Iraq War Resolution, which authorized United States President George W. Bush to use military force against Iraq, should such action be required to enforce a United Nations Security Council Resolution after pursuing with diplomatic efforts. (However, Clinton voted against the Levin Amendment to the Resolution, which would have required the President to conduct vigorous diplomacy at the U.N., and would have also required a separate Congressional authorization to unilaterally invade Iraq. She did vote for the Byrd Amendment to the Resolution, which would have limited the Congressional authorization to one year increments, but the only mechanism necessary for the President to renew his mandate without any Congressional oversight was to claim that the Iraq War was vital to national security each year the authorization required renewal.) After the Iraq War began, Clinton made trips to both Iraq and Afghanistan to visit American troops stationed there, such as the 10th Mountain Division based in Fort Drum, New York. On a visit to Iraq in February 2005, Clinton noted that the insurgency had failed to disrupt the democratic elections held earlier, and that parts of the country were

functioning well. Noting that war deployments are draining regular and reserve forces, she co-introduced legislation to increase the size of the regular United States Army by 80,000 soldiers to ease the strain. In late 2005, Clinton said that while immediate withdrawal from Iraq would be a mistake, Bush's pledge to stay "until the job is done" is also misguided, as it gives Iraqis "an open-ended invitation not to take care of themselves." She criticized the administration for making poor decisions in the war, but added that it was more important to solve the problems in Iraq. This centrist and somewhat vague stance caused frustration among those in the Democratic Party who favor immediate withdrawal. Clinton supported retaining and improving health benefits for veterans, and lobbied against the closure of several military bases.

Senator Clinton voted against the tax cuts introduced by President Bush, including the Economic Growth and Tax Relief Reconciliation Act of 2001 and the Jobs and Growth Tax Relief Reconciliation Act of 2003, saying it was fiscally irresponsible to reopen the budget deficit.

Senator Clinton delivers an address to Families USA, 2005

Clinton voted in 2005 against the confirmation of John Roberts as Chief Justice of the United States, and in 2006 against the nomination of Samuel Alito to the United States Supreme Court; both were confirmed. In 2005, Clinton called for the Federal Trade Commission to investigate how hidden sex scenes showed up in the controversial video game *Grand Theft Auto: San Andreas*. Along with Senators Joe Lieberman and Evan Bayh, she introduced the Family Entertainment Protection Act, intended to protect children from inappropriate content found in video games. In July 2004 and June 2006, Clinton voted against the Federal Marriage Amendment that sought to prohibit same-sex marriage. The proposed constitutional amendment fell well short of passage on both occasions.

Looking to establish a "progressive infrastructure" to rival that of American conservatism, Clinton played a formative role in conversations that led to the 2003 founding of former Clinton administration chief of staff John Podesta's Center for American Progress; shared aides with Citizens for Responsibility and Ethics in Washington, founded in 2003; advised and nurtured the Clintons' former antagonist David Brock's Media Matters for America, created in 2004; and following the 2004 Senate elections, successfully pushed new Democratic Senate leader Harry Reid to create a Senate war room to handle daily political messaging.

Second term

Senator Clinton listens as Chief of Naval Operations Navy Admiral Mike Mullen responds to a question during his 2007 confirmation hearing with the Senate Armed Services Committee.

Clinton opposed the Iraq War troop surge of 2007 and supported a February 2007 non-binding Senate resolution against it, which failed to gain cloture. In March 2007 she voted in favor of a war spending bill that required President Bush

to begin withdrawing troops from Iraq within a certain deadline; it passed almost completely along party lines but was subsequently vetoed by President Bush. In May 2007 a compromise war funding bill that removed withdrawal deadlines but tied funding to progress benchmarks for the Iraqi government passed the Senate by a vote of 80-14 and would be signed by Bush; Clinton was one of those that voted against it. Clinton responded to General David Petraeus's September 2007 Report to Congress on the Situation in Iraq by saying, "I think that the reports that you provide to us really require a willing suspension of disbelief." In September 2007 she voted in favor of a Senate resolution calling on the State Department to label the Iranian Revolutionary Guard Corps "a foreign terrorist organization", which passed 76-22. In March 2007, in response to the dismissal of U.S. attorneys controversy, Clinton called on Attorney General Alberto Gonzales to resign, and launched an Internet campaign to gain petition signatures towards this end. In May and June 2007, regarding the high-profile, hotly debated comprehensive immigration reform bill known as the Secure Borders, Economic Opportunity and Immigration Reform Act of 2007, Clinton cast a number of votes in support of the bill, which eventually failed to gain cloture. Clinton has enjoyed high approval ratings for her job as Senator within New York, reaching an all-time high of 72 to 74 percent approving (including half of Republicans) over 23 to 24 percent disapproving in December 2006, before her presidential campaign became active; by August 2007, after a half year of campaigning, it was still 64 percent over 34 percent.

Answer the questions:

1. What is Hillary Clinton famous for?
2. What is your attitude towards Lewinsky scandal? Do you prove Hillary's behavior?
3. Do people consider Hillary Clinton to be a good Senator? Give a list of her main political issues.

4.7. Средства массовой информации

Pre-reading activity. Where do you get the news about politics (fashion, weather, sport) from?

The term the **mass media** in English refers basically to TV, radio and newspapers: means of communication which reach very large numbers of people. This page looks at some useful words for talking about the **mass media** and about **publishing** in general.

TEXT 1

Radio and television

Watching television is one of the great British pastimes! Broadcasting in the United Kingdom is controlled by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Independent Broadcasting Authority (IBA). The BBC receives its income from the government, but the private companies controlled by the IBA earn money from advertising.

National radio is controlled by the BBC, and listeners can choose between four stations. Radio 1 is a pop-music station with news and magazine-style programmes. Radio 2 plays light music and reports on sport. Radio 3 plays classical music whilst Radio 4 has news programmes, drama and general interest programmes. There are many local stations, some private and some run by the BBC. Their programmes consist mainly of music and local news.

The BBC has two TV channels. BBC 2 has more serious programmes and news features. The IBA is responsible for looking after the regional independent TV companies who broadcast their own programmes and those they have bought

from other regions. There is a break for advertisements about every 15-20 minutes. The most recent independent channel is called Channel 4 and it has more specialized programmes than the main channels. In general, people think the programmes offered on British television are of a very high standard. Some people, however, are becoming worried about the amount of violence on TV, and the effect this may have on young people.

TV and radio are also two of the main teaching channels used by the Open University. This 'university of the air' allows many thousands of students to study at home for degrees they never would have obtained in the main educational system. They also have to do without sleep as most of their programmes are broadcast early in the morning or late at night!

New technology has made it possible for viewers to receive many more programmes into their homes through satellite TV. The 1990s may well see many changes in British TV and radio.

Types of programmes: documentaries news broadcasts current affairs programmes soap operas [continuing stories about the lives of a set of characters] quizzes sitcoms [comedies centring around a set of characters in a particular situation] drama chat shows detective stories sports programmes weather forecasts music programmes game shows [where contestants compete for prizes] variety shows commercials [adverts].

A **serial** is a story that continues from one **programme** or **episode** to the next. A **series** is about the same **characters** or has the same format each week but each programme is complete in itself.

Films originally made in a different language may have **sub-titles** so you can read a translation of what the characters are saying or be **dubbed**, so you hear what they are saying in your own language.

TV aerial
satellite dish
camcorder
headset/headphones

Exercises:

1. What sort of TV programmes do you think these would be?

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Murder at the Match | 4 The \$10,000 Question |
| 2. The Amazing Underwater World | 5 Last Week in Parliament |
| 3. World Cup Special | 6 Hamlet from Stratford |

2. Give the name of one programme you know in your country of each type mentioned in B.

3. Match the media job on the left with its definition on the right.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| 1 make-up artist | writes a regular article in a newspaper or magazine |
| 2 foreign correspondent | shoots films |
| 3 sub-editor | writes reviews |
| 4 publisher | is responsible for the production and sale of a book |
| 5 continuity person | reports on events in other countries |
| 6 columnist | lays out and adds headlines to newspaper pages |
| 7 camera operator | makes up the faces of people who are to appear on TV |
| 8 critic | ensures scenes in a film connect smoothly |

4. Fill in the gaps below with the most appropriate word from the opposite page.

1. You get better reception if you use a.....rather than an.....
2. You can hear BBC news.....all over the world.
3. A short wave or a VHF radio can.....many interesting stations.
4. Although our.....was expensive, we've taken some priceless film of our children.
5. Children often prefer looking at.....to reading books.

5. Match two words to make a common collocation.

affairs cassette chat colour control current dish forecast news
newspaper opera remote report satellite show soap supplement tabloid
video weather

Talking points: What is your attitude to violence on TV? Does it influence people and how it should be controlled?

British people watch a lot of television. They are also reported to be the world's most dedicated home-video users. But this does not mean that they have given up reading. They are the world's third biggest newspaper buyers; only the Japanese and the Swedes buy more.

TEXT 2

The press

Fleet Street is famous as the home of the nation's newspapers but, in fact, only two of them - *The Daily Express* and *The Daily Telegraph* - are still in Fleet Street. However, people still say 'Fleet Street' to mean 'the press'.

The British are a nation of newspaper readers. Many of them even have a daily paper delivered to their homes in time for breakfast!

British newspapers can be divided into two groups: quality and popular. Quality newspapers are more serious and cover home and foreign news thoughtfully while the popular newspapers like shocking, personal stories as well as some news. These two groups of papers can be distinguished easily because the quality newspapers are twice the size of the popular newspapers.

Quality Daily Newspapers

The Times, The Guardian, The Daily Telegraph, The Financial Times, The Independent.

Popular Daily Newspapers

The Daily Express, The Sun, The Mirror, The Daily Mail, Today, The Star.

Quality Sunday Newspapers

The Sunday Times, The Observer, The Sunday Telegraph.

Popular Sunday Newspapers

The News of the World

Express. The sun

Newspaper publication is dominated by the national press? Which is an indication of the comparative weakness of regional identity in Britain. Nearly 80% of all households, buy a copy of one of the main national papers every day. There

are more than eighty local and regional daily papers; but the total circulation of all of them together is much less than the combined circulation of the national 'dailies'. The only non-national papers with significant circulations are published in the evenings, when they do not compete with the national papers? Which always appear in the mornings.

Most local papers do not appear on Sundays, so on that day the dominance of the national press is absolute. The 'Sunday papers' are so called because that is the only day on which they appear. Some of them are sisters of a daily (published by the same company) but employing separate editors and journalists.

The morning newspaper is a British household institution; such an important one that, until the laws were relaxed in the early 1990s, newsagents were the only shops that were allowed to open on Sundays. People could not be expected to do without their newspapers for even one day, especially a day when there was more free time to read them. The Sunday papers sell slightly more copies than the national dailies and are thicker. Some of them have six or more sections making up a total of well 200 pages.

Another indication of the importance of 'the papers' is in the morning 'paper round'. Most newsagents organize these, and more than half of the country's readers get their morning paper delivered to their door by a teenager who gets up at around half-past five every day in order to earn a bit of extra pocket money.

TEXT 3

Newspapers and publishing

Parts of the newspaper: headlines news reports editorial [an opinion article written by the editor] feature articles, e.g. about fashion or social trends horoscope cartoons crossword small ads business news sports reports scandal the letters page

A **popular** or **tabloid** newspaper focuses more on sensation than real news whereas a **quality newspaper** professes to be more interested in real news than in sensation. A tabloid usually has a smaller format than a **quality paper**, it has larger **headlines** and shorter stories and, in Britain, it prefers stories about film stars, violent crimes and the royal family. A **journal** is the name usually given to an academic **magazine**. A **colour** supplement is a **magazine** which comes out once a week (often on Sundays) as an addition to a newspaper. A comic is a **magazine**, usually for children or teenagers, with lots of picture stories and/or cartoons.

Make sure you know the verbs in these sentences.

The BBC World Service **broadcasts** throughout the world.

I can **receive** / **pick up** broadcasts from Moscow on my radio.

They're **showing** a good film on TV tonight.

This book was **published** by CUP and it was **printed** in Cambridge.

The film was **shot** / **made on location** in Spain.

They **cut/censored** the film before showing it on TV.
This article/programme has been badly **edited**.

Follow-up activity:

Choose any newspaper (it could be in your own language if you can't find an English one) and complete the following sentences.

1. The main story today is about
.....
2. The editorial is
about.....
3. There are readers' letters on page.....and they deal with the following
topics:
4. The most interesting feature is about
.....
5. There is some scandal on page....., a crossword on page....., a cartoon
on pageand some small ads on page.....
6. The most interesting business story is about
.....and the largest sports article is
about.....
7. The most striking photograph
shows.....
8. There are advertisements
for.....and.....
9. An article about.....on page.....made me
feel.....

Глава 5. США (язык, культура, география, история, политическое устройство) и другие страны изучаемого языка

TEXT 1

The United States

The United States is certainly one of the most diverse countries of the world, both from a cultural and an environmental perspective. The land that is now the United States was home to diverse cultures when the first Europeans and Africans arrived. It was inhabited by a variety of Native American peoples who spoke more than 300 different languages. The Europeans and Africans added their own varying cultures to this diversity.

The 13 colonies they founded along the eastern seaboard became the United States in the late 18th century. During the following century, the new nation added huge chunks of territory, and millions of immigrants arrived, mainly from Europe and especially during the years from 1860 to 1914. A second migration occurred in the Southwest, where Hispanics pushed northward from Mexico, leaving an indelible imprint. In addition, slaves were brought from Africa to work on agricultural estates in the South, where they formed a large percentage of the population. Of those who chose to come to the United States, many saw it as a land of plenty, and certainly that was true. However, many Americans faced extraordinary hardships as they adapted to a natural and cultural environment that was sometimes harsh and demanding.

During the settlement of the nation, immigrants moved westward across the United States and found a rich and varied natural environment. From the original coastal colonies, settlers made their way over the Appalachian Mountains beginning in the 1700s. Beyond the mountains lay the vast rolling territory drained by the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes. There settlers encountered the rich farmlands of the Ohio Valley, the Mississippi Delta, and the Great Plains. For decades, the rugged peaks of the Rocky Mountains and the arid landscape of the Southwest discouraged movement further west. In the mid-1800s, however, spurred by the discovery of gold in California, determined settlers followed trails through the mountain passes to reach the West Coast. In the valleys of California and Oregon, they found productive agricultural land, and they began harvesting the timber reserves from the untouched forests of the Pacific Northwest. The purchase of Alaska in 1867 added a mountainous northern territory rich in natural resources. The annexation of Hawaii in 1898 gave the United States what would be its only tropical state. The United States has been blessed with many natural advantages, such as climates favorable for agriculture, extensive internal waterways, and abundant natural resources.

All four of the world's most productive agricultural climates are found in the United States. These climatic regions display a favorable mix of rain and sun as well as a long growing season, and together, they cover more than a third of the

country. Favorable climates have allowed farmers to produce vast quantities of grain for human consumption and crops to feed animals. These remarkable climatic areas make the United States one of the world's leading agricultural countries.

Another major natural advantage—one that is taken for granted by most Americans—is that the major river systems (the Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Colorado, and Río Grande systems) flow south. If these rivers flowed north, as rivers do in Russian Siberia, ice and frozen soil would block the meltwater, causing floods that would saturate the land and render it unusable for agriculture. Instead, when spring thaws arrive in the interior mountains of the United States, meltwater flows unimpeded through the river systems to the warm waters of the Gulf of Mexico or the Gulf of California. This almost uninterrupted flow of water provides ample supplies for drinking water and for crop irrigation and industrial production.

The United States has many other natural advantages. A wide array of valuable mineral resources, such as oil, natural gas, iron ore, coal, lead, zinc, phosphate, silver, and copper, benefits mining and industry. The shallow waters along the coastline, known as the continental shelf, serve as a rich breeding ground for marine life, which promotes commercial and sport fishing. The comprehensive network of rivers also provides transportation routes for bulk cargo and the potential for the development of hydroelectricity.

Government

United States are the combination of federal, state, and local laws, bodies, and agencies that is responsible for carrying out the operations of the United States. The federal government of the United States is centered in Washington, D.C.

The institutions of all governments emerge from basic principles. In the United States the one basic principle is representative democracy, which defines a system in which the people govern themselves by electing their own leaders. The American government functions to secure this principle and to further the common interests of the people.

Democracy in America is based on six essential ideals: (1) People must accept the principle of majority rule. (2) The political rights of minorities must be protected. (3) Citizens must agree to a system of rule by law. (4) The free exchange of opinions and ideas must not be restricted. (5) All citizens must be equal before the law. (6) Government exists to serve the people, because it derives its power from the people. These ideals form the basis of the democratic system in the United States, which seeks to create a union of diverse peoples, places, and interests.

To implement its essential democratic ideals, the United States has built its government on four elements: (1) popular sovereignty, meaning that the people are the ultimate source of the government's authority; (2) representative government;

(3) checks and balances; and (4) federalism, an arrangement where powers are shared by different levels of government.

Every government has a source of its sovereignty or authority, and most of the political structures of the U.S. government apply the doctrine of popular sovereignty. In previous centuries the source of sovereignty in some countries was the monarchy—the divine right of kings to rule. Americans place the source of authority in the people who, in a democratic society, reign. In this idea the citizens collectively represent the nation's authority. They then express that authority individually by voting to elect leaders to represent them in government. "I know no safe repository of the ultimate powers of the society but the people themselves," wrote Thomas Jefferson in 1820, "and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them but to inform their discretion." This was an experimental idea at the time, but today Americans take it for granted.

Culture

The American people express their culture through traditions in food, clothing, recreation, and ceremonies; through the education system and institutions of learning, including museums and libraries; and through the arts, encompassing the visual, literary, and performing arts.

American culture is rich, complex, and unique. It emerged from the short and rapid European conquest of an enormous landmass sparsely settled by diverse indigenous peoples. Although European cultural patterns predominated, especially in language, the arts, and political institutions, peoples from Africa, Asia, and North America also contributed to American culture. All of these groups influenced popular tastes in music, dress, entertainment, and cuisine. As a result, American culture possesses an unusual mixture of patterns and forms forged from among its diverse peoples. The many melodies of American culture have not always been harmonious, but its complexity has created a society that struggles to achieve tolerance and produces a uniquely casual personal style that identifies Americans everywhere. The country is strongly committed to democracy, in which views of the majority prevail, and strives for equality in law and institutions.

Characteristics such as democracy and equality flourished in the American environment long before taking firm root in European societies, where the ideals originated. As early as the 1780s, Michel Guillaume Jean de Crèvecoeur, a French writer living in Pennsylvania who wrote under the pseudonym J. Hector St. John, was impressed by the democratic nature of early American society. It was not until the 19th century that these tendencies in America were most fully expressed. When French political writer Alexis de Tocqueville, an acute social observer, traveled through the United States in the 1830s, he provided an unusually penetrating portrait of the nature of democracy in America and its cultural consequences. He commented that in all areas of culture—family life, law, arts, philosophy, and

dress—Americans were inclined to emphasize the ordinary and easily accessible, rather than the unique and complex. His insight is as relevant today as it was when de Tocqueville visited the United States. As a result, American culture is more often defined by its popular and democratically inclusive features, such as blockbuster movies, television comedies, sports stars, and fast food, than by its more cultivated aspects as performed in theaters, published in books, or viewed in museums and galleries. Even the fine arts in modern America often partake of the energy and forms of popular culture, and modern arts are often a product of the fusion of fine and popular arts.

While America is probably most well known for its popular arts, Americans partake in an enormous range of cultural activities. Besides being avid readers of a great variety of books and magazines catering to differing tastes and interests, Americans also attend museums, operas, and ballets in large numbers. They listen to country and classical music, jazz and folk music, as well as classic rock-and-roll and new wave. Americans attend and participate in basketball, football, baseball, and soccer games. They enjoy food from a wide range of foreign cuisines, such as Chinese, Thai, Greek, French, Indian, Mexican, Italian, Ethiopian, and Cuban. They have also developed their own regional foods, such as California cuisine and Southwestern, Creole, and Southern cooking. Still evolving and drawing upon its ever more diverse population, American culture has come to symbolize what is most up-to-date and modern. American culture has also become increasingly international and is imported by countries around the world.

TEXT 2

Canada

Canada, federated country in North America, made up of ten provinces and three territories. Canada is a vast nation with a wide variety of geological formations, climates, and ecological systems. It has rain forest, prairie grassland, deciduous forest, tundra, and wetlands. Canada has more lakes and inland waters than any other country. It is renowned for its scenery, which attracts millions of tourists each year. On a per-capita basis, its resource endowments are the second richest in the world after Australia.

Six general landform regions are distinguishable in Canada: the Appalachian Region, the Great Lakes and St. Lawrence Lowlands, the Canadian Shield, the Great Plains, the Canadian Cordillera, and the Canadian Arctic Archipelago.

The population of Canada was 28,846,761 at the time of the latest census in 1996, compared to 27.3 million in 1991. The growth rate from 1991 to 1996 was 1.14 percent per year; this is the fourth highest rate among the 27 countries in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), which corresponds roughly to the most developed industrial countries of the world. Half

of this growth is due to immigration. Canada's liberal immigration program accepts newcomers from nearly every other country in the world. The estimated population in 2005 was 32,805,041.

Most Canadians live in cities, and most of the cities are close to the southern border. The largest urban centers are in Québec and Ontario provinces, or central Canada, where some two-thirds of the people live. Most of the population is ethnically British or French, although other European countries are well represented, and indigenous peoples are the majority in the north. French and English are the official languages, although the people who speak English as their mother tongue outnumber those whose mother tongue is French by 2½ to 1. Roman Catholics, who include most French-speaking people, are the most numerous religious group, followed by the United Church of Canada and the Anglican Church. Immigrants are a growing minority, particularly those from Asia, and have been changing the face of Canada's largest urban areas.

Canadians have a high literacy rate and a number of fine universities. The standard of living is one of the world's highest, although one in seven households is poverty stricken. Violent crime is low compared to other North American societies, but has been rising.

Canada is officially bilingual, and all services provided by the federal government are available in English and French. The selection of Ottawa as the national capital, located on the Ontario-Québec border, reflects the long-standing political and cultural importance of the two founding nations. The 2001 census reported that only 1.5 percent of Canadians don't have at least some ability to speak one of the official languages; 18 percent of Canadians are fluently bilingual. The majority speak English: 59 percent reported English as their mother tongue in 2001, while 23 percent reported French and 18 percent a nonofficial language. The most prevalent nonofficial languages in Canada are, in order of prominence, Chinese, Italian, Punjabi, Spanish, Portuguese, and Polish.

The indigenous peoples spoke dozens of different languages, and many are still spoken today. Almost all fall into groups of related languages traceable from a common ancestral tongue. The largest such group is the Algonquian; Cree, an Algonquian language, is spoken by 94,000 people and is today's most significant indigenous language in Canada. Other large groups are Dene (also called Athapaskan), Iroquoian, Siouan, Salishan, Wakashan, Tsimshian, and Inuit-Aleut (Eskimaleut). There are also three indigenous languages of British Columbia—Kootenay, Haida, and Tlingit—that are not clearly related to any other known tongue.

Canada is a relatively young country and is still forging a cultural identity that is distinct from those of its European founding nations and the United States. Establishing a national culture is made difficult by a strong tendency within Canada toward regional forms of cultural expression. Furthermore, many different cultures must be accommodated within the national identity. Thus it is more appropriate to speak of Canadian cultures rather than a single national culture.

Government of Canada

Form of government	Federal parliamentary democracy
Head of state	Governor-general, representing the British monarch
Head of government	Prime minister
Legislature	Bicameral legislature: House of Commons, 308 members Senate, 105 senators
Voting qualifications	Universal at age 18
Constitution	Amended British North America Act 1867; obtained the right to amend the constitution 17 April 1982
Highest court	Supreme Court of Canada

Canada is a federation governed under a parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy. Governmental powers in Canada are divided between the central or federal government and the provincial and territorial governments. Territories have less autonomy from the federal government than provinces have. Canada is governed under the constitution of 1982, which gathered the previous constitutional acts into a single framework and added a charter of rights and freedoms. It also provided for what Canadians call “patriation”—giving the Canadian government total authority over its own constitution. Previously, the British North America Act of 1867 and subsequent laws had given the British government some authority over Canada’s constitution.

With the exception of electoral officers and individuals convicted of a crime, all Canadian citizens over the age of 18 are eligible to vote and to run in elections. They must be resident in the *riding* (electoral district) where they cast their ballot. Voter turnout for national elections is generally high, with 70 percent or more of eligible voters participating.

Queen Elizabeth II, the monarch of Britain, is recognized as the queen of Canada. The queen is represented in Canada by the governor-general, whose

powers are largely ceremonial. The chief executive is the prime minister, who is answerable to a legislature. The Canadian Parliament is answerable to the citizens at elections that are held, at most, five years apart. Judges are appointed by the federal and provincial governments.

Traditionally there were two dominant national political parties, the Liberal Party and the Progressive Conservative Party. They stood for the liberal and conservative sides, respectively, of political thought, although their positions varied widely. Each had a counterpart in provincial government, but these were loosely connected and differed with the national party on major issues. The two parties were of comparable strength, with one forming the government and the other the official opposition in Parliament, until 1993. In that year the Progressive Conservatives were defeated so resoundingly that their future was in doubt. A sectional party, the Bloc Québécois of Québec, won the second highest number of seats in Parliament and became the official opposition. In 1997 they were replaced in that role by another sectional party, the conservative Reform Party (later folded into a new party called the Canadian Alliance), based mainly in the western provinces. In 2003 the Progressive Conservatives and the Canadian Alliance merged to form a new party known as the Conservative Party.

Since World War II (1939-1945), the federal government has greatly increased the social services, such as subsidized medical care, pensions, and family allowances, that it provides its citizens. The provincial governments have generally cooperated, but not without fear that the traditional powers exercised by the provinces are being eroded. That fear is especially great in Québec, where it is compounded by fear of domination by the English-speaking majority of the country.

TEXT 3

Australia

Australia, island continent located southeast of Asia and forming, with the nearby island of Tasmania, the Commonwealth of Australia, a self-governing member of the Commonwealth of Nations. The continent is bounded on the north by the Timor Sea, the Arafura Sea, and the Torres Strait; on the east by the Coral Sea and the Tasman Sea; on the south by the Bass Strait and the Indian Ocean; and on the west by the Indian Ocean. The commonwealth extends about 4,000 km (about 2,500 mi) from east to west and about 3,700 km (about 2,300 mi) from north to south. The area of the commonwealth is 7,682,300 sq km (2,966,200 sq mi), and the area of the continent alone is 7,614,500 sq km (2,939,974 sq mi), making Australia the smallest continent in the world, but the sixth largest country. The capital of Australia is Canberra, and the largest city is Sydney; both are located in the southeast.

Form of government	Federal parliamentary democracy
Head of state	Governor-general, representing the British monarch
Head of government	Prime minister
Legislature	Bicameral legislature: House of Representatives, 150 members Senate, 76 senators
Voting qualifications	Universal and compulsory at age 18
Constitution	9 July 1900, effective 1 January 1901
Highest court	High Court of Australia

Australia's system of government is a federal parliamentary democracy. The constitution of Australia, which became effective in 1901, is based on British parliamentary traditions, and includes elements of the United States system. Australia is a member of the Commonwealth of Nations that chooses to recognize the British monarch as its own sovereign and, as such, its head of state. The head of government is the Australian prime minister, who is responsible to the Australian parliament. All powers not delegated to the federal government are entrusted to the states. Australia is a founding member of the United Nations (UN).

A large proportion of Australia's native animal species exist nowhere else in the world. Of Australia's animal species, it is estimated that 84 percent of mammals, 89 percent of reptiles, 93 percent of frogs, and 45 percent of birds are endemic. Some archaic species, such as the Queensland lungfish, have changed little since Paleozoic or Mesozoic times. Scientists estimate that 19 land mammals and 20 birds have become extinct (that is, not sighted in the wild for at least 50 years) since European settlement. The World Conservation Monitoring Centre classifies 63 mammals, 60 birds, 38 reptiles, and 47 amphibians as threatened.

New Zealand

New Zealand, island nation in the South Pacific Ocean, located south of the equator in the Southern Hemisphere, and marking the eastern boundary of the Tasman Sea, a portion of the Pacific Ocean that separates New Zealand and the nearest large landmass, Australia, by a distance of about 1,600 km (1,000 mi). New Zealand includes two large islands that constitute most of its landmass, as well as numerous small islands. New Zealand administers two overseas territories, Tokelau and Ross Dependency (in Antarctica). The self-governing entities of Niue

and the Cook Islands are in free association with New Zealand, which handles their foreign affairs and defense as requested.

New Zealand is known for its scenic landscapes of snowcapped mountains and rolling green pastures. Its image as a farming outpost stems from the traditional importance of agriculture to the economy as well as the low population density in most areas. However, the majority of New Zealanders live in urban areas, and many now earn a living in service industries such as tourism. The capital of New Zealand is Wellington. The largest and most cosmopolitan city is Auckland.

Form of government	Parliamentary democracy
Head of state	Governor-general, representing the British monarch
Head of government	Prime minister
Legislature	Unicameral legislature: House of Representatives, 120 members
Voting qualifications	Universal at age 18
Constitution	No written constitution; political system closely modeled on that of the United Kingdom.
Highest court	Court of Appeal

New Zealand is a constitutional monarchy with a parliamentary form of government. After British sovereignty was established in New Zealand in 1840, the Constitution Act of 1852 created the first system of government, including a two-chamber legislature and provincial councils. Additional legislation subsequently modified most of its provisions, such as the elimination of the legislature's upper house in 1950. Like the United Kingdom, New Zealand does not have a single written constitution. Instead, constitutional legislation is an accumulation of statutory and customary laws. The miscellaneous laws are given cohesion through precedent, tradition, and unwritten formal rules known as conventions. The Constitution Act of 1986 consolidated and augmented New Zealand's collection of laws. New Zealand maintains close ties with the United Kingdom as a full member of the Commonwealth of Nations.

Ethnic groups and languages

New Zealanders of European descent, who are often known by the Maori name Pakeha, comprise about 75 percent of the population. They are usually described as the largest ethnic group, but in fact they are ethnically mixed. People of English, Scottish, and Irish descent comprise the largest groups (in that order),

but there are also people of German, Australian, Scandinavian, Croatian, and Dutch descent.

Maori, the original inhabitants of New Zealand, are the largest non-European group. They are a Polynesian people whose ancestors first settled the islands in about AD 1100. Their share of the population declined precipitously in the 19th century, after European colonization of the islands, but it rebounded dramatically during the 20th century from less than 5 percent in 1900 to about 15 percent in 2000.

Pacific Islanders and East Asians each account for about 5 percent of the population. Large-scale Pacific Islander immigration began in the 1960s. These immigrants came mainly from Tonga, the Fiji Islands, Tokelau, Niue, the Cook Islands, and, most of all, Samoa. East Asian immigration dates from the 1860s, when gold rushes attracted thousands of Chinese. Another wave of immigration began in the 1980s by peoples from East and Southeast Asia, including ethnic Chinese from Hong Kong and Taiwan, South Koreans, Thais, Malaysians, Vietnamese, and Filipinos.

English and Maori are the official languages of New Zealand. Most of the people speak English with a New Zealand accent, which resembles the Australian accent. The Maori language belongs to the Austronesian language family. It was recognized as an official language in 1987. A small percentage of the total Maori population is considered fluent in Maori, but the language is being revived in early-childhood programs known as *kohanga reo* (“language nests”). Other Polynesian and European languages are spoken by a small percentage of the population.

Task. Find the information about national flags, anthems and symbols of English-speaking countries. Make a report.

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